


Smolich, Robert Stephen

An Analysis of Influence Affecting the
Origin and Early Development of Three Mid-
Western Public Junior Colleges - Joliet,
Goshen, and Crane, 1967



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Smolich, Robert Stephen

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JOLIET JUNIOR COLLEGE
JOLIET, ILLINOIS

AN ANALYSIS OF INFLUENCES AFFECTING THE ORIGIN AND
EARLY DEVELOPMENT OF THREE MID-WESTERN PUBLIC
JUNIOR COLLEGES--JOLIET, GOSHEN, AND CRANE

APPROVED BY SUPERVISORY COMMITTEE.

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AN ANALYSIS OF INFLUENCES AFFECTING THE ORIGIN AND
EARLY DEVELOPMENT OF THREE MID-WESTERN PUBLIC
JUNIOR COLLEGES--JOLIET, GOSHEN, AND CRANE

by

ROBERT STEPHEN SMOLICH, B.S., M.A.

DISSERTATION

Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of

The University of Texas at Austin

in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements

For the Degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT AUSTIN

August 1967

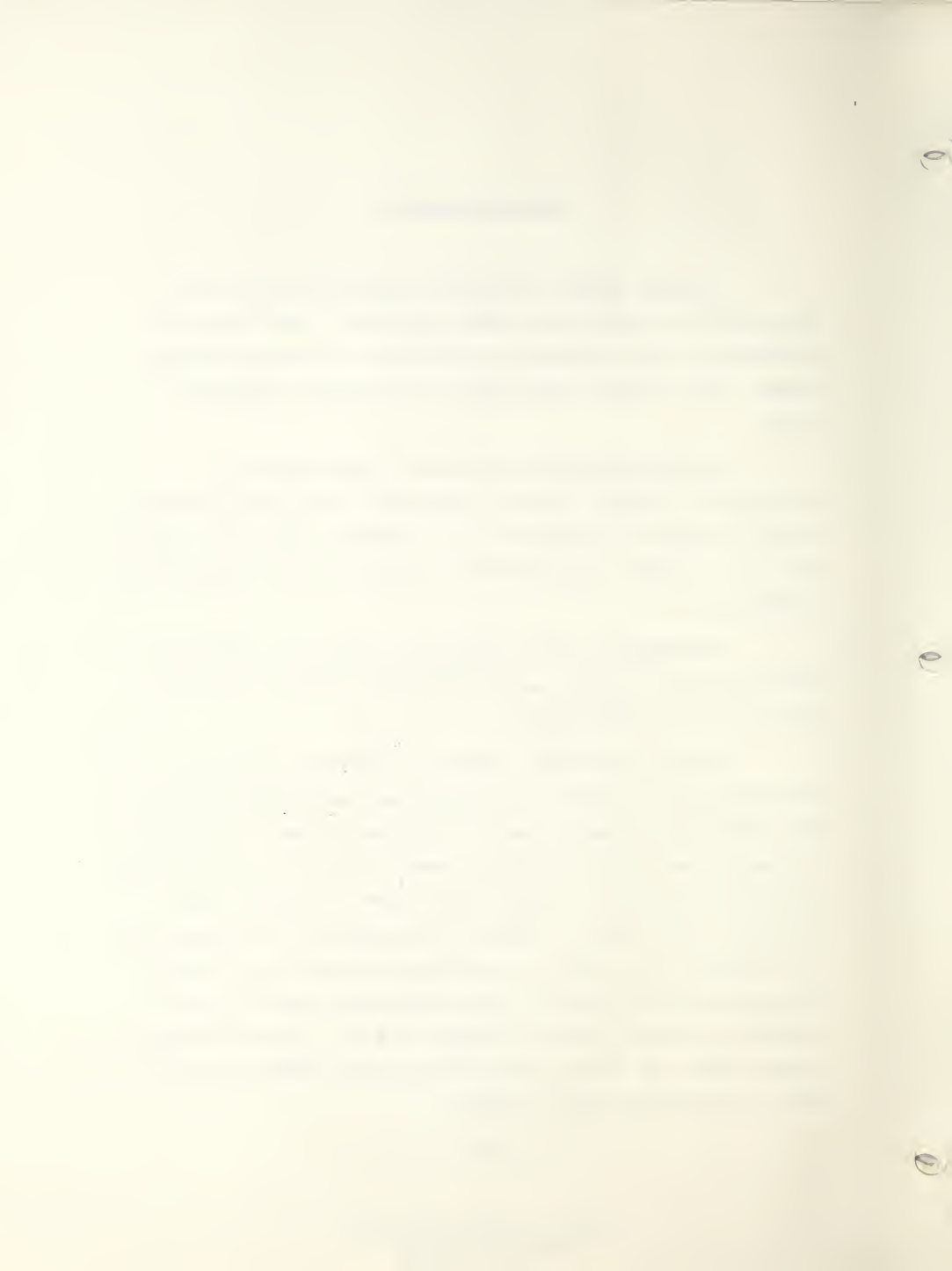
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A great number of people and institutions have contributed to make this study possible. Their willing cooperation and invaluable assistance is hereby acknowledged. The sincere gratitude of the author extends to each.

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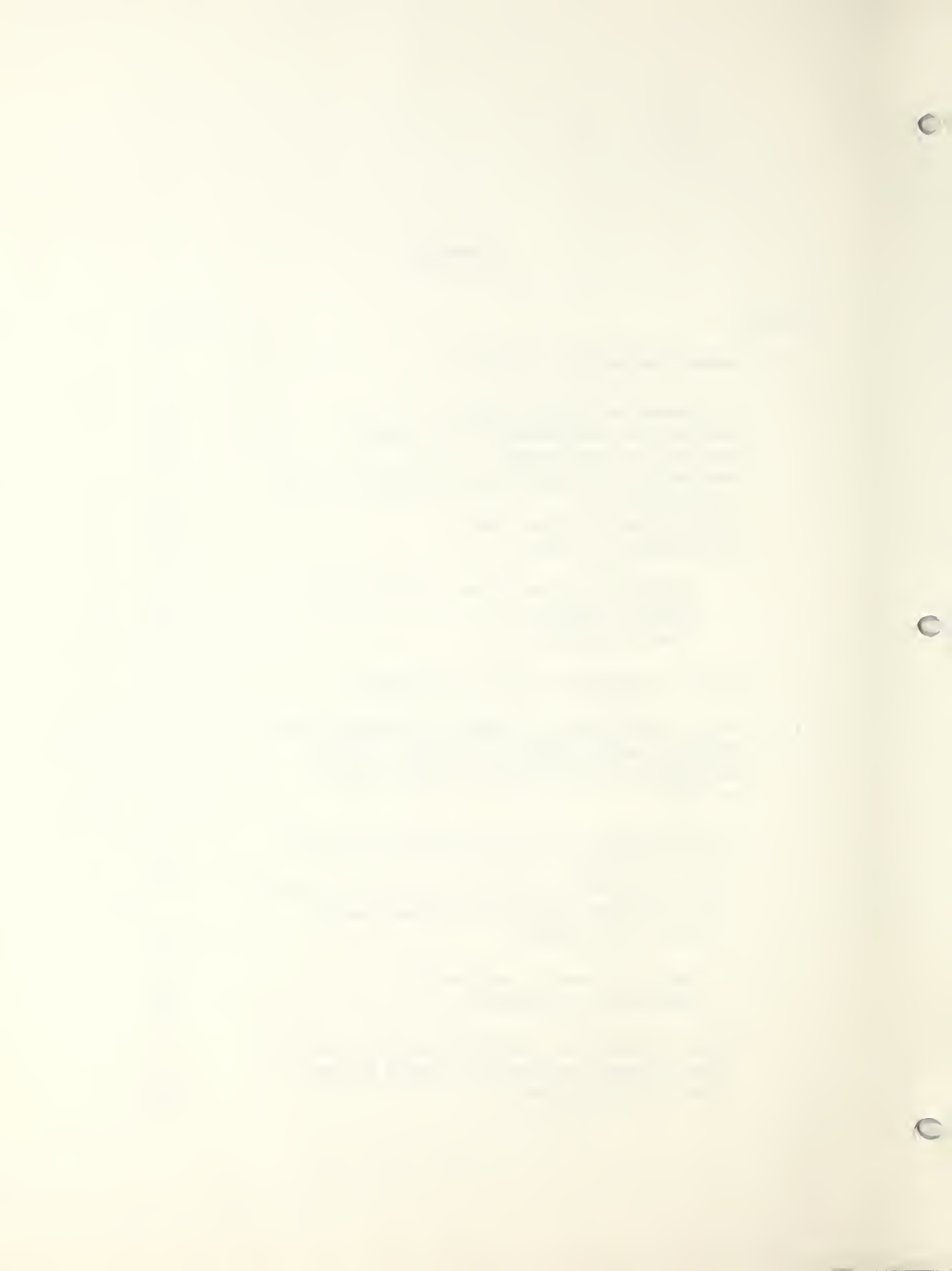
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R. S. S.

The University of Texas
Austin, Texas
May 1967

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

This dissertation may best be described as a descriptive analysis of three early public junior colleges: Joliet Junior College at Joliet, Illinois; Goshen "Junior College"¹ at Goshen, Indiana; and Crane Junior College at Chicago, Illinois. Of these, only the first named has continued from its inception, though Crane Junior College has been recently reactivated as a branch of the junior college program of the Chicago schools after a lapse of over twenty years of inactivity. The objectives of studying the three schools, the background and potential value of the investigation, and the research methods used are all explained below to provide a general introduction to the study.

Statement of Objectives

This study was planned to fulfill two objectives. One of these objectives, considered to be the primary one,

¹While the institution at Goshen was, in terms of its function and general character, a junior college, during its existence it was never actually called Goshen Junior College. Instead, it was referred to as the "post-graduate course" or "post-graduate program." In this study, it will be termed Goshen "Junior College," "the junior college at Goshen," "the extended high school program," or the "six-year high school at Goshen" for technical accuracy.

THEORY

1. THEORY OF THE ATOM

The theory of the atom is one of the most important branches of physics. It deals with the structure and properties of matter at the smallest scale. The atom is the basic unit of matter, and it is composed of a central nucleus made of protons and neutrons, surrounded by a cloud of electrons. The behavior of atoms is governed by the laws of quantum mechanics, which describe the probabilistic nature of their interactions. The study of atoms has led to the development of modern physics and chemistry, and it continues to be a central topic in scientific research.

2. ATOM

2.1. THE ATOM AND THE QUANTUM THEORY

The atom is the basic unit of matter, and it is composed of a central nucleus made of protons and neutrons, surrounded by a cloud of electrons. The behavior of atoms is governed by the laws of quantum mechanics, which describe the probabilistic nature of their interactions. The study of atoms has led to the development of modern physics and chemistry, and it continues to be a central topic in scientific research.

was to determine by analytical methods the principal influences which shaped, in both a positive and a negative way, the initial and subsequent early development of the three selected junior colleges. The secondary objective was to prepare accurate and objective brief histories of the three junior colleges which would be a contribution to the history of the junior college field.

Background and Value of the Study

A preliminary appraisal of a somewhat similar study completed in 1953 by Fretwell (3)² suggested that there might be both academic and pragmatic value in studying in depth the factors which influenced the development of Joliet Junior College, Goshen "Junior College," and Crane Junior College. While Fretwell had a somewhat similar aim, he focused his attention solely on positive influences disregarding both negative forces and the interplay between factors working for and against the survival and success of the institutions he studied. Moreover, these selected institutions were, for the most part, schools which had survived, seven of the eight being in operation when Fretwell conducted his research. For another limitation, the institutions which he studied were widely dispersed geographically and were founded during widely varying

²The form employed in this dissertation for documenting sources was that adopted by the American Educational Research Association.

time periods representing different social, economic, and cultural conditions.

While Fretwell's study may have the advantage of being based upon a more representative sample of junior colleges, the very diversity of the schools studied made it possible only to derive broad generalizations as to what the most significant factors were which enabled these institutions to survive and progress. It was deemed important, therefore, to supplement Fretwell's study with an investigation recognizing the importance of both facilitating and inhibiting influences and concentrating on depth studies of these three pioneer institutions which were all founded about the same time under conditions resembling a Social Darwinistic social environment.

The three junior colleges selected for this study, it should be mentioned, were all founded very early in the twentieth century--1902, 1904, and 1911. They were all pioneering and experimental institutions which, unlike some of those studied by Fretwell, had few precedents or guidelines to follow as a means of avoiding mistakes or promoting successful development. Unaided by any specific legislative or financial supports, or even criteria, such as modern junior colleges now enjoy, the three schools began their existence as a struggle in which, by the conventional wisdom, only the "fit" survived. While faith in "natural laws" no longer commands educated respect, there should be some profit in ascertaining, if possible, what influences both aided and opposed the development of

these junior colleges under the "natural" conditions which prevailed during the first few decades of this century. It would seem that such influences, if they could but be identified, might come far closer to representing "universal" forces than any influences which might be determined from a study of junior colleges developing in a later, less "rugged," and more hospitable social and economic environment.

In planning the study, it was reasoned, also, that apart from the analytical goal there should be some value in merely recording the objective facts about each of the three schools' historical development. Early primary research showed quite clearly that current administrative personnel in the three institutions studied are handicapped by a lack of factual knowledge about the histories of their schools. Since present problems are always, to some extent, legacies from the past, there would seem to be some need for purely descriptive information about the development of these institutions, particularly so in view of their pioneering roles in the public junior college movement. Moreover, as has been noted, there is a definite need to clear up certain controversial points, trivial though they may be, which trouble writers when they attempt to pinpoint in time and space these early public junior colleges.

For all these reasons, it was deemed justifiable--indeed, highly important--to add to the considerable contribution made by Fretwell. Just how this decision was implemented is described in the next section.

Methods of the Study

After preliminary, background research (for example, the reading of Fretwell's study) had been completed, the investigation was launched by making personal visits to each of the schools and communities selected. During these visits (four days at Goshen and eighteen days at each of Joliet and Chicago), an attempt was made to interview persons who had been associated with the schools during their early formative periods, as well as, of course, to conduct discussions with personnel now in charge. In conducting the interviews, the method used was the open-ended technique, as described and recommended by Murphy (4:443). The information secured--particularly that from "old timers"--was afterwards subjected to a critical evaluation to assess its validity and trustworthiness. The validation methods used not only in the interviews but with other sources as well were essentially those recommended by Borg (1:193-196).

As each school was visited, an attempt was made, also, to secure as much primary source material as possible from official records, minutes of board meetings, letters, courses of study, and other documents. This material, too, was subjected to rigorous critical evaluation to determine its authenticity and accuracy. Not all statements found in these sources were accepted at face value. Much other information, of course, was obtained from reputable secondary sources. The conventional indexes, footnotes and bibliographies in journals and books, and suggestions of

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individuals were all means of tracing pertinent published material in a number of libraries and other depositories. In almost all cases, relevant secondary information was reproduced by photocopying, classified, and filed for subsequent study. While some known references proved to be impossible to locate in any of the libraries or other depositories searched, the quantity of high-grade published information gathered was quite abundant.

Another necessary research procedure was that of statistical data processing and organizing. Since a considerable amount of environmental information used was obtained from U.S. Census reports and similar sources, it was necessary to summarize, process, and organize many raw data for presentation in the form of tables. All computations--means, percentage distributions, absolute and relative rates of change, and the like--were done by mechanical means and were doubled checked for accuracy.

Still another procedural task was that of constructing an analytical tool, or model, for studying the primary and secondary data. While a purely Baconian inductive method might have been used, it was deemed expedient, as a means of achieving both brevity and consistency in analysis, to look for specific types of influences in studying the material from the standpoint of fulfilling the study's primary analytical objective. The analytic model used was based upon the assumptions that (1) an impartial study of the material would disclose two types of influences--those that were of an internal nature and those

1. The first part of the document discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all transactions. It emphasizes that proper record-keeping is essential for the integrity of the financial system and for the ability to detect and prevent fraud. The text also mentions the need for regular audits and the role of independent auditors in ensuring the reliability of the data.

2. The second part of the document focuses on the implementation of internal controls. It describes various measures that can be taken to minimize the risk of errors and misstatements, such as the separation of duties, the use of standardized procedures, and the establishment of a strong internal control environment. The text also discusses the importance of training and education for all personnel involved in the financial process.

3. The third part of the document addresses the issue of transparency and disclosure. It highlights the need for clear and concise communication of financial information to all stakeholders, including investors, creditors, and the public. The text also discusses the importance of timely and accurate reporting and the role of regulatory bodies in ensuring compliance with disclosure requirements.

4. The final part of the document provides a summary of the key points discussed and offers some concluding thoughts on the importance of sound financial management practices. It reiterates the need for a strong internal control system, accurate record-keeping, and transparent disclosure of financial information.

that were of an external nature; and (2) that, within each of these categories, the influences could be subdivided into positive influences and negative influences. The analytical model, or outline, for studying the material, therefore, was set up as follows:

I. INTERNAL INFLUENCES³

- A. Positive Influences
- B. Negative Influences

II. EXTERNAL INFLUENCES

- A. Positive Influences
- B. Negative Influences

In order to minimize the possibility of biased analysis, or the finding of that which was a priori-determined, no attempt was made to further subdivide the "positive" and "negative" elements of the model. The types of influences presumed to be detectable in the material were rationalistically predetermined in violation of true Baconian induction, but the specific influences relegated under these categories were in all cases empirically ascertained without any a priori assumptions being made as to what they would be.

³The order of the internal and external influences was reversed in separate analyses according to their relative importance. For example, if in a given case, external forces were deemed to be more important in shaping development than internal influences, the external influences were discussed first.

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO
DEPARTMENT OF CHEMISTRY
530 CHICAGO HALL
CHICAGO, ILL. 60637

January 10, 1964

Dr. J. H. Goldstein

University of California

San Diego, California

Dear Dr. Goldstein:

I have just received your letter of January 8, 1964, regarding the paper by Goldstein and co-workers, "The Structure of the Surface of Polymers," published in the Journal of Polymer Science, Part A, Vol. 2, pp. 1-10, 1964. I am sorry that I have not had time to read the paper in detail, but I am sure that it is of great interest to me.

I am currently working on the structure of the surface of polymers, and I am particularly interested in the question of the distribution of chain ends and branches on the surface. I am sure that your paper will be very helpful to me in this regard.

I am sure that your paper will be of great interest to me, and I am sure that I will be able to learn a great deal from it.

I am sure that your paper will be of great interest to me, and I am sure that I will be able to learn a great deal from it.

Sincerely,
[Signature]

Fundamental Assumptions and Theoretical Constructs

The research design chosen necessarily involved the making of various assumptions about both the nature of change and the nature of institutions. It may be helpful at this point, to make those assumptions explicit and, also, to mention some of the theoretical and philosophical concepts and constructs utilized in interpreting the data.

Perhaps the most fundamental assumption made was that, as the Ionian philosopher Heraclitus taught, reality is never static. All things are at all times in a state of flux, so that, instead of pure being, there is a process of becoming. In line with the idea of the Heraclitean flux, it was assumed that the junior colleges studied were, throughout their histories, changing, either in the direction of cohesion or in the direction of disintegration. Similarly, it was assumed that the environments of these schools were constantly undergoing change. The Social Darwinistic view that all change is progress was, however, rejected, both with respect to the institutions and their environment.

Another fundamental assumption made was that the determinants of change in the institutions were of both an external (environmental) and an internal (immanent) nature. The age-old controversy of heredity versus environment, based as it is upon either-or thinking, has pretty well given way to the view that both environment and heredity

THE HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

FROM 1776 TO 1876

The history of the United States is a story of growth and change. It begins with the first settlers who came to the Americas in search of a new life. These early pioneers faced many hardships, but they persevered and built a new society. Over time, the United States grew from a small colony into a powerful nation. It fought wars, both with and without, and emerged as a global leader. The story of the United States is one of resilience and progress, a testament to the human spirit's ability to overcome adversity and build a better future.

The early years of the United States were marked by a period of exploration and discovery. Explorers like Christopher Columbus and John Cabot opened up new worlds, revealing the vast potential of the Americas. These discoveries led to a period of colonization, as settlers from Europe and other parts of the world came to the New World in search of land and opportunity. The early settlers faced many challenges, including disease, lack of resources, and conflict with Native Americans. Despite these hardships, they managed to establish a foothold in the Americas and began to build a new society.

As the United States grew, it became a melting pot of different cultures and peoples. Immigrants from all over the world came to the United States, bringing with them their own traditions, languages, and customs. This diversity became a strength of the nation, as it allowed for a rich and varied cultural heritage. The United States became a place where people from different backgrounds could come together and build a new life. This spirit of openness and acceptance was a key factor in the nation's success.

The United States has a long and proud history of freedom and democracy. From the founding of the nation in 1776 to the present day, the United States has been a leader in the promotion of these values. The American Revolution was a landmark event in the history of the world, as it established a new model of government based on the principles of liberty and equality. The United States has since become a global leader in the promotion of these values, and its influence has been felt around the world.

The United States has also been a pioneer in many other fields, including science, technology, and the arts. From the invention of the light bulb to the development of the atomic bomb, the United States has been at the forefront of many of the most important discoveries and innovations of the modern world. The United States has also been a leader in the arts, with many of the most famous works of American literature and music being created here.

The history of the United States is a story of a nation that has grown from a small colony into a powerful global leader. It is a story of resilience, progress, and the human spirit's ability to overcome adversity. The United States has a rich and varied cultural heritage, a long and proud history of freedom and democracy, and a legacy of innovation and discovery. The story of the United States is one that continues to inspire and inform us today.

are important; and this modern view, as it applies to the change of institutions, was adopted. Essentially, the view taken was the same as that of Sorokin, who, in his Social and Cultural Dynamics, pointed out that, while internal potentialities may perhaps be the most important, external circumstances may either facilitate or inhibit the unfolding of "immanent" destiny (6:639). Extreme view of both environmental and constitutional determinism were rejected as being oversimplifications of reality.

It was assumed, moreover, that institutions are not entirely passive agents buffeted about by change. While biological or organismistic analogies have their limitations, a fundamental assumption made was that, in interaction with environmental forces, the junior colleges had some power, actual or potential, to modify, within limits, their environment; or that, lacking powers of modifications, they had some capacity to adapt (again within limits) to external forces.

A theory of development and change of institutions found in the literature which seemed to offer possibilities for application to the present problem is Prescott's "Law of Growth." Though published in 1922, or forty-five years ago, this theory is still widely applied in various types of time-series analyses. In essence, the theory holds that any institution which is "a direct function of population" typically passes through: (1) an experimental stage, during which survival is uncertain and growth is slow; (2) a "period of growth into the social fabric," during which the institution is widely adopted as a beneficial part of the

environment and during which, accordingly, there is a rapid increase in demand for the institution's services; (3) a period during which growth continues but at a decreasing rate, and (4) an ending stage during which institutions become relatively stable or decline (5:471-472).

Since it appeared that analysis of junior college "development," which is a very broad term, would be facilitated if progress could be broken into parts or phases, Prescott's "Law of Growth" was selected as a possible means of making such a segmentation of growth trends for the institutions studied.

Limitations of the Study

It perhaps should be noted that the analytical phase of the study was limited to a determination of influences affecting the development of the selected junior colleges. Excluded from the scope of the investigation was the ascertaining of actual causes of progress or decline. Moreover, no attempt was made to analyze all possible influence, but only the more important ones that could be adequately documented.

The investigation was limited, also, to a study of influences which made themselves felt more or less directly. No considerable attempt was made to trace influences on influences, though it was well recognized that the identification of a direct influence represented only a partial and incomplete answer to the problem of determining what

factors were related to positive or negative change. If, however, as some monistic philosophies proclaim, that everything is related to everything else, then it would be manifestly impossible to attempt to trace the ultimate origins of direct influences. In the present study, no such attempt was made.

While it was hoped that the research might disclose factors influencing development which might be regarded as "universals," the study made no pretense of reaching conclusions which would have predictive value under changed modern conditions. In no way was the study aimed at discovering "laws" of junior college growth or decline.

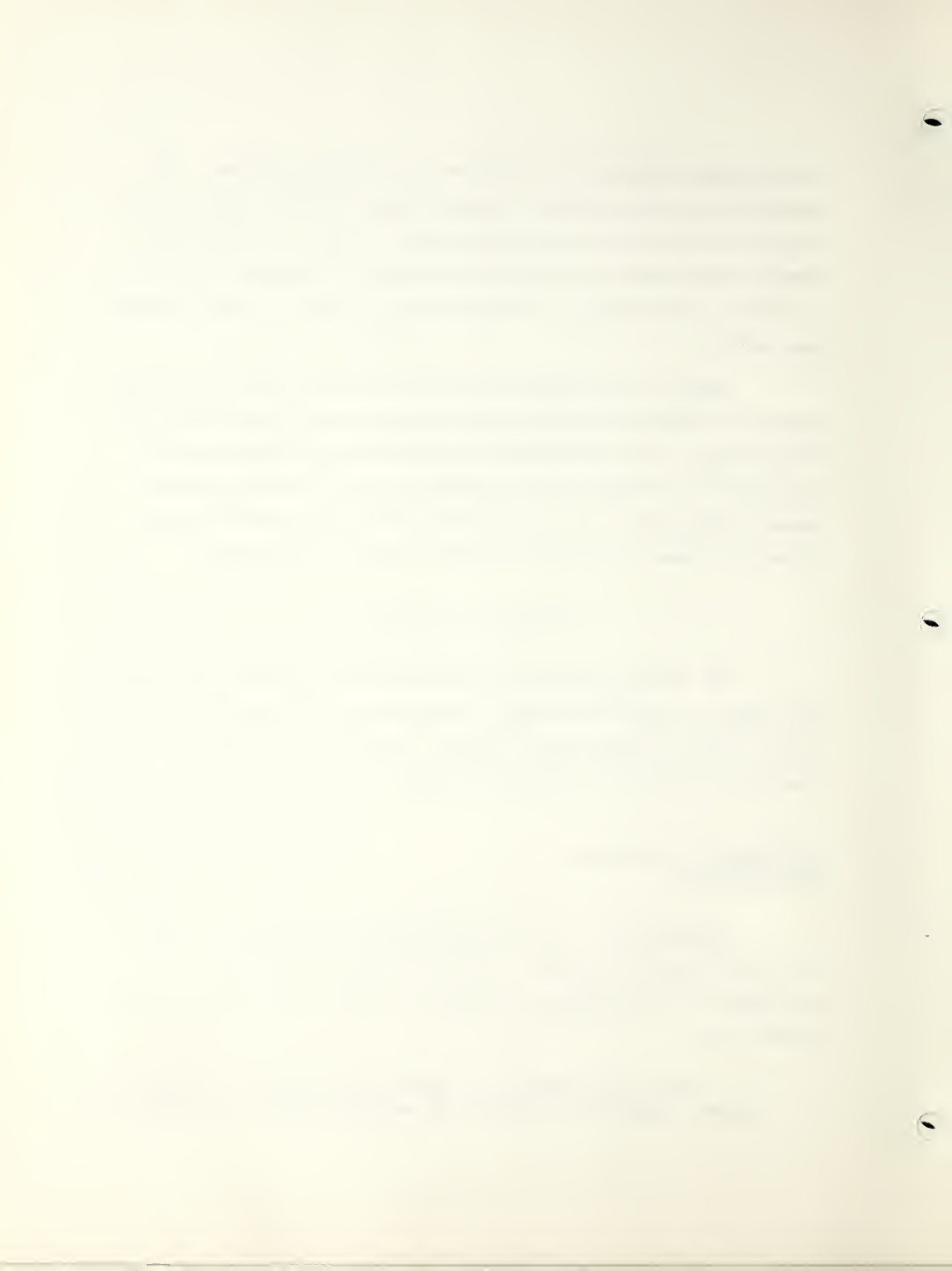
Definition of Terms

To avoid possible semantic difficulties, an attempt was made to define the major specialized and technical terms used throughout the study. The meanings given to these key terms are explained below.

Influences, Negative and Positive

Influence. The term influence was given the general dictionary meaning. As defined by Webster, an influence, in the sense in which the word was used in this study, is:

. . . the act, process, or power of producing an effect without apparent exertion of tangible force or direct



exercise of command and often without deliberate effort or intent (7:1160).

Negative Influences. For the purpose of the present study, a negative influence was defined as an influence, whether external or internal to an institution, which, acting either singly or in unison, and interacting with other influences, inhibits the optimum growth and development of that institution and complicates the institution's problem of achieving its goals and progressing or surviving in its environment.

Positive Influences. The term positive influence was defined as an influence, whether external or internal to an institution, which, acting either singly or in unison, and interacting with other influences, facilitates or favors the optimum growth and development of that institution and simplifies the institution's problem of achieving its goals and progressing and surviving in its environment.

Junior College

The three case studies of concern in this dissertation illustrate the evolutionary origin of these institutions as junior colleges--the extension of the high school by the addition of fifth and sixth year postgraduate programs. Because of the character of this origin, a definition in a historical context appears necessary. Such, to be of value in establishing dates of origins, required the establishment of certain criteria as a necessary part of this definition.

The first part of the report deals with the general situation of the country and the progress of the work during the year.

The second part of the report deals with the results of the work during the year. It is divided into two main sections: the first section deals with the results of the work in the field of the study of the history of the country, and the second section deals with the results of the work in the field of the study of the history of the people of the country.

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The fifth part of the report deals with the results of the work during the year. It is divided into two main sections: the first section deals with the results of the work in the field of the study of the history of the country, and the second section deals with the results of the work in the field of the study of the history of the people of the country.

As used in this paper, therefore, a junior college was viewed as an institution which offered two years of college-level instruction, that is, a program equal in quality to that of the first two years of the better colleges and universities of the period. This instruction was based upon and continued the work of a quality four-year high school program. The year in which the complete first year college-level program of instruction was initiated was considered adequate to justify an institution being termed a junior college provided that the second year of the program was in operation not later than two years after the initiation of the first year. Acceptance of the work of the junior college program en toto for transfer credit by a single college or university was not considered to be a condition of the work being "of college level."

"Law of Growth"

When the term "Law of Growth," or, alternately, Curve of Growth is used in this study, it refers to Prescott's four-phase formulation of development, as previously described. Usage of the term is not intended to imply that there is an inviolate or "natural" law of growth associated with the development of institutions, but rather, that there is a general tendency for development to include the four phases described by Prescott.

1. The first part of the report deals with the general situation of the country and the results of the survey. It is divided into two main sections: the first section deals with the general situation of the country and the results of the survey, and the second section deals with the specific results of the survey.

2. The second part of the report deals with the specific results of the survey. It is divided into three main sections: the first section deals with the results of the survey in the field of agriculture, the second section deals with the results of the survey in the field of industry, and the third section deals with the results of the survey in the field of commerce.

3. The third part of the report deals with the conclusions of the survey. It is divided into two main sections: the first section deals with the conclusions of the survey in the field of agriculture, and the second section deals with the conclusions of the survey in the field of industry and commerce.

4. The fourth part of the report deals with the recommendations of the survey. It is divided into two main sections: the first section deals with the recommendations of the survey in the field of agriculture, and the second section deals with the recommendations of the survey in the field of industry and commerce.

5. The fifth part of the report deals with the appendix. It contains the following information:

- a. A list of the names of the persons who took part in the survey.
- b. A list of the names of the persons who assisted in the survey.
- c. A list of the names of the persons who provided information for the survey.
- d. A list of the names of the persons who provided information for the survey.

Plan of Organization of the Study

In planning the organization of this dissertation, it was decided to include a chapter complete in itself, for each of the three schools studied. This plan was chosen mainly in consideration of the need of the institutions for such descriptive histories. Adoption of this plan offered the advantage of simplifying the problem of fulfilling promises made to participating administrators for such complete and individual histories. Moreover, the plan adopted seemed best to guarantee the kind of depth treatment that was desired. Finally, it was reasoned that the organizational plan adopted would simplify the problem of drawing general conclusions in the dissertation's final chapter. School-by-school analyses permitted the reaching, at the end of each chapter, major sub-conclusions which, in the ending chapter, were consolidated or synthesized into broad generalizations for the three schools as a group.

A conventional approach to the study of junior college development is to start by tracing antecedents presumed to have suggested the way for the establishment of the earliest junior colleges. Since these reports are abundant in the literature,⁴ and their relevancy to this study remote at the best, this conventional approach was not adopted in the present study. It was felt, however, that an analysis

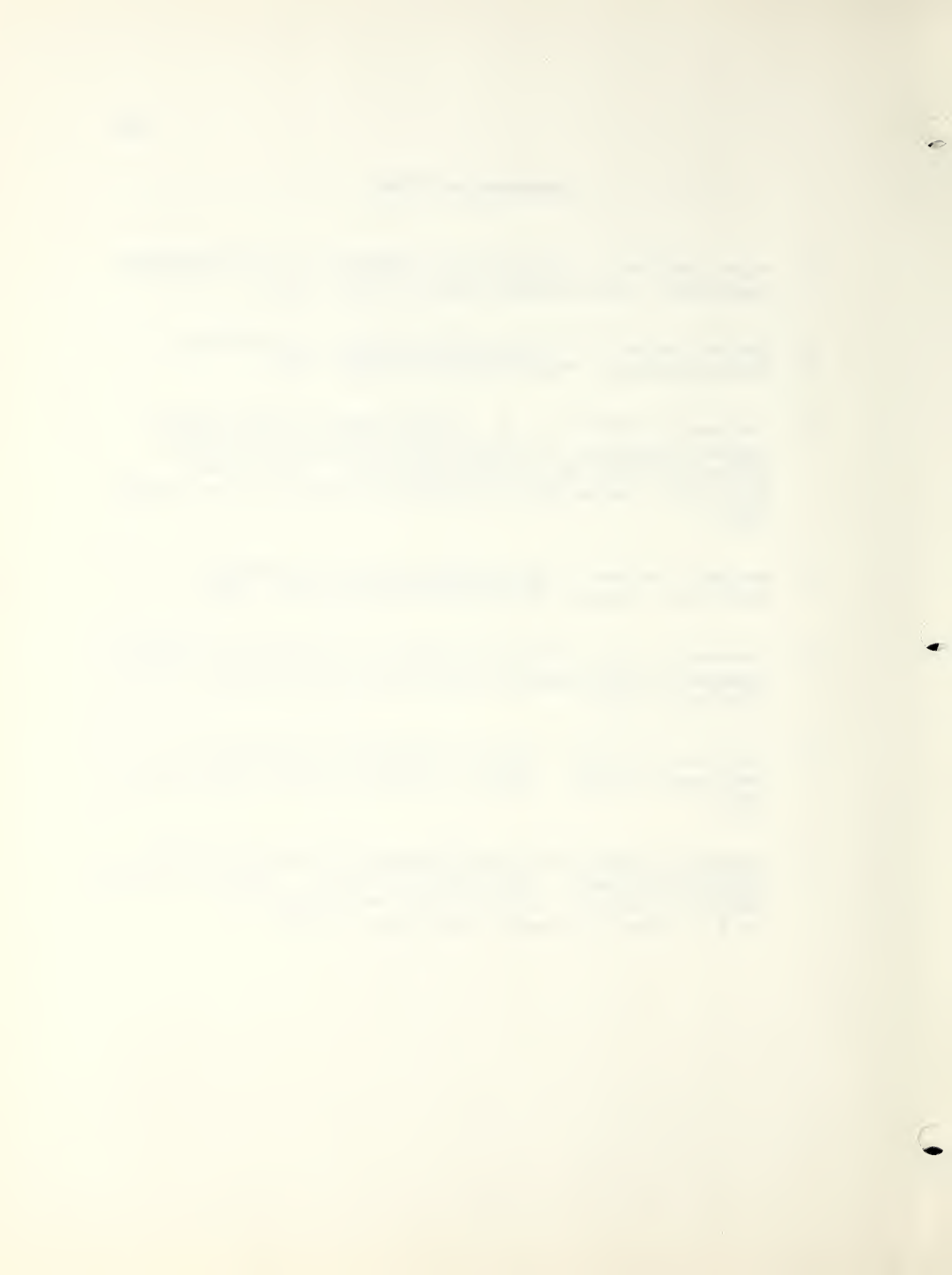
⁴See, in particular: Walter C. Eells, The Junior College (Cambridge, Massachusetts: The Riverside Press, 1931), pp. 44-59.

of broad factors influencing the reorganization of American secondary education leading to the junior college movement was vital as background to this study. This direct information was incorporated into the next chapter providing a needed macro perspective for Chapters III, IV, and V, which describe and analyze, respectively, Joliet Junior College, Goshen "Junior College," and Crane Junior College.

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CHAPTER II

BROAD BACKGROUND FACTORS INFLUENCING THE GENERAL DEVELOPMENT OF PUBLIC JUNIOR COLLEGES IN THE UNITED STATES, 1900 to 1929

In order to understand the initiation and development of any institution, it appears necessary at the outset to know something about its historical setting. Consequently, to provide a needed macro perspective for understanding the later micro cases studies of the three junior colleges concerned, this chapter focuses upon a number of broad, general, historical factors which affected the development of public junior colleges as a whole during the first three decades of this century. The chapter's specific objectives are as follows:

(1) To trace, in a broad, general way, the development trends of public junior colleges in the United States from 1900 to 1929 and to interpret these trends in light of a theoretical law of growth.

(2) To determine what influences were evident, both in the internal and external¹ environments (that is, within and without the nation's educational system) which would

¹In this study, the terms "internal" and "external" are used in a relative manner. Definitions will be provided for each new usage.

have tended either to encourage or to discourage the development of public junior colleges between 1900 and 1919, a period herein termed "the experimental period."

(3) To determine what influences were evident, both in the internal and external environments (that is, within and without the nation's educational system) which would have tended either to encourage or to discourage the development of public junior colleges between 1920 and 1929, a period herein termed "the period of rapid growth."

Interpretation of Developmental Trends, 1900 to 1929

With respect to the first objective, it is generally conceded that public junior colleges in the United States are a twentieth-century phenomenon. While a number of private two-year colleges existing prior to 1900 are considered by some writers in tracing development, the fact remains that as of 1900 not a single public junior college as defined in this study existed in the United States.

Public junior college developments after the turn of the century were slow. During the first five years, 1900 to 1904, inclusive, only two public junior colleges (as shown by Chart 1) were opened, and during the next five years, 1905 through 1909, only one other institution was added (7:14). Thus, in the first decade of the century, only three public junior colleges were established in the United States.



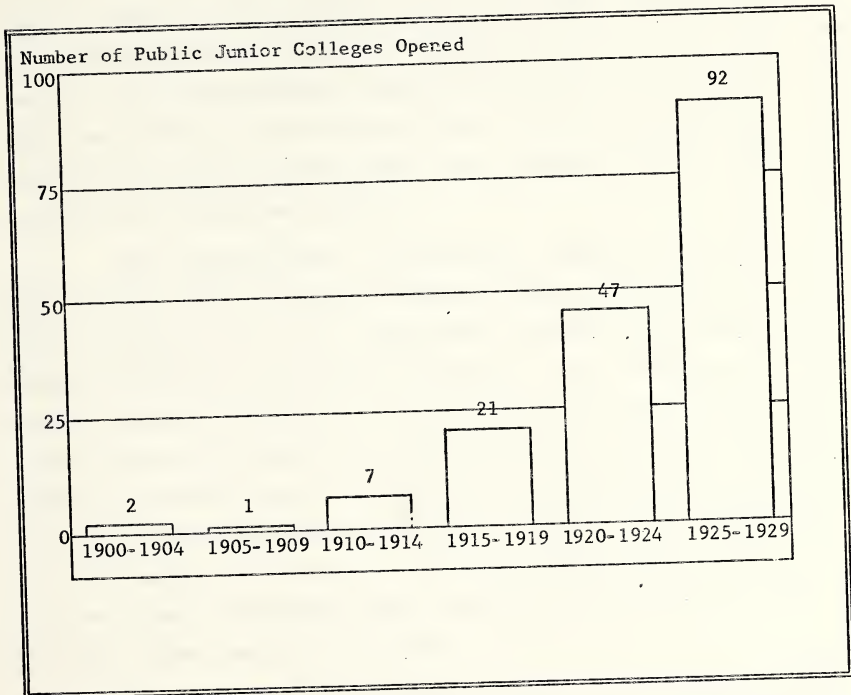


Chart 1. Number of Public Junior Colleges Opened in the United States by Opening Date Periods, 1900-1904 to 1925-1929.

Source: Coleman R. Griffith and Hortense Blackstone, The Junior College in Illinois, p. 14.



During the following decade, slow progress continued. Between 1910 and 1914, seven public junior colleges opened their doors, or more than twice as many as had been established during the preceding decade. Then, during the war years, 1915 to 1919, twenty-one other institutions came into existence (7:14). By the end of the first two decades, thirty-one junior colleges had been opened, more than two-thirds of them having been started in the last five years, 1915 through 1919. Yet, overall growth, 1900 to 1919, was relatively slow.

Very rapid growth, in contrast, marked the period 1920 through 1929. Between 1920 and 1924, forty-seven junior colleges came into existence--sixteen more than had opened during the preceding ten years. This progress in growth seems to have stimulated a truly impressive surge of effort during the next five years, 1925 through 1929, when ninety-two public junior colleges were established (7:14). For the period as a whole--that is, between 1920 and 1929--the one hundred and thirty-nine institutions which came into existence exceeded those started between 1900 and 1919 by almost four and a half times.

The developmental pattern reflected by Chart 1 lends itself to interpretation by Prescott's Law of Growth, formulated in 1922 and since applied to many trends and institutions of diverse kinds. According to Prescott, growth of institutions typically progresses through four stages:

- (1) a period of experimentation marked by slow growth and many failures,
- (2) a period of extremely rapid growth of

1. The first part of the document is a letter from the President of the United States to the Congress, dated January 3, 1862. It contains a report on the state of the Union and the progress of the war against the rebellion. The President mentions the recent victories of the Union forces and expresses confidence in the ultimate success of the cause.

2. The second part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Treasury, dated January 10, 1862. It details the financial condition of the government and the measures taken to meet the demands of the war. The report notes the increase in public debt and the need for further financial resources.

3. The third part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Interior, dated January 15, 1862. It discusses the management of the public lands and the progress of the reclamation work. The report mentions the discovery of gold in California and the need for further exploration.

4. The fourth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Navy, dated January 20, 1862. It describes the state of the naval forces and the progress of the construction of new ships. The report notes the success of the fleet in the Gulf of Mexico and the need for further expansion.

5. The fifth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the War, dated January 25, 1862. It provides a detailed account of the military operations and the progress of the war. The report mentions the recent battles and the need for further reinforcements.

6. The sixth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the State, dated January 30, 1862. It discusses the diplomatic relations of the United States and the progress of the peace negotiations. The report mentions the success of the negotiations and the need for further diplomatic efforts.

7. The seventh part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Education, dated February 5, 1862. It describes the state of the educational system and the progress of the reforms. The report mentions the success of the reforms and the need for further improvements.

8. The eighth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Agriculture, dated February 10, 1862. It discusses the state of the agricultural industry and the progress of the reforms. The report mentions the success of the reforms and the need for further improvements.

9. The ninth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Commerce, dated February 15, 1862. It describes the state of the commercial industry and the progress of the reforms. The report mentions the success of the reforms and the need for further improvements.

10. The tenth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Finance, dated February 20, 1862. It discusses the state of the financial industry and the progress of the reforms. The report mentions the success of the reforms and the need for further improvements.

the institution as it becomes an accepted part of the social fabric, (3) a period marked by continued growth but at a rate much diminished below that evident during the second period, and (4) a period of stability or decline (15:471-479). The evolutionary stages are somewhat similar to biological development passing from infancy and early childhood into adolescence and then into maturity followed by old age.

Application of Prescott's Law of Growth to public junior colleges would suggest that they went through the first, or experimental, stage between 1900 and 1919. Beginning about 1920, on the other hand, they appeared to have evolved into the second stage, their most rapid development having taken place between 1925 and 1929. It seems reasonable, therefore, to consider these two divisions of the three-decade period separately in making an effort to determine what influences favored and retarded the development of public junior colleges in the early twentieth century.

Major Influences Affecting Junior College

Development during the Experimental

Period, 1900-1919

Evidence indicates that when public junior colleges first came into existence at the onset of the experimental period, there were both major internal and external forces, some of them dating back at least a half century, which tended either to promote or to retard their success and

1. The first part of the document is a letter from the President of the United States to the Congress, dated January 3, 1862. It is a very important document, as it contains the President's views on the state of the Union and the progress of the war. The letter is written in a very formal and dignified style, and it is one of the most important documents of the Civil War era.

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progress. To simplify the analytical task, the external and internal forces of both a positive and a negative nature are discussed separately below.

Major Internal Influences

As indicated earlier for the purposes of this chapter, internal influences are considered to be those occurring within the educational system as a whole--a system including higher education (colleges and universities) as well as secondary and elementary levels.

Positive Influences. It is most fortunate for the modern scholar that at least one writer attempted to determine empirically broad general factors affecting the junior college movement during this time period. That writer was McDowell, whose study (13) is particularly valuable because it was published in 1919, or at the very end of the time-period being termed "the experimental period." With one of his purposes being "to make a clear analysis of the forces that have contributed to the origin and development of the junior college" (13:98), McDowell concluded that these forces could be grouped under four headings, as follows:

- (1) Those coming from within the university.
- (2) Those coming from within the normal school.
- (3) The demand for an extended high school.
- (4) The problem of the small college (13:16).

One very important factor, McDowell states, was the fact that, during the period under consideration, the idea of the junior college received a considerable amount of favorable support from university leaders. This influence deserves some detailed analysis.

It is now well known that during the last half of the nineteenth century, a number of university presidents and leaders saw the need for reform in the reorganization of university work. Researchers such as Eels have collected statements from addresses and other communications by a number of university presidents and leaders which show that as early as the 1850's the opinion had developed that the first two years of college work were distinctly secondary in nature and that they should, therefore, be separated from the specialization nature of university work done in the junior and senior years and in the graduate schools (5:10-11).

At least two experiments in reorganization, both of them short-lived, were carried out along these lines before 1890. The earliest attempt to separate the first two years of college work from university work seems to have been made at the University of Georgia where in 1862 the freshman year was eliminated--a plan which, however, was dropped when the school resumed instruction after the Civil War (4:193-195). The other early experiment was made at the University of Michigan. For a short time after 1883, this institution experimented with a plan similar to

the one adopted at the University of Georgia but it was abandoned after a short trial (5:22).

Among university men who exerted an influence in the late nineteenth century on the reorganization of American education, none was more important than William Rainey Harper of the University of Chicago. A biblical scholar and a former professor at Yale, Harper played a key role in influencing John D. Rockefeller to help finance the new institution and became its president when it opened its doors on October 1, 1892 (17:1-35). From that time until his death in 1906, Harper was a dominant force behind reorganization of American secondary and higher education which led to the development of the junior college movement. His specific influences may be summarized as follows:

(1) Harper effected at the University of Chicago the first real separation of the upper and lower levels. At the University of Chicago from the very beginning each of the four colleges--the College of Liberal Arts, the College of Literature, the College of Science, and the College of Practical Arts--was divided into an upper and lower division. The lower division, representing the freshman and sophomore years, was called the "academic college," while the upper division, or the junior and senior years, was called the "university college" (14:513). Later, in 1896, the terms were changed to the "junior college" and "senior college," respectively (5:11).

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(2) Harper encouraged the development of junior colleges off as well as on the university campus. Interested not merely in promoting reforms at the University of Chicago but also at reorganizing the whole system of American education, Harper believed that the day had come for universities to confine themselves to junior, senior, and graduate studies and for secondary schools to add fifth and sixth years. In his The Trend in Higher Education, published in 1903, Harper optimistically predicted that

ten years from now the high schools all over the country will have added a fifth and sixth year and will be doing college work which now falls to the first two years of college courses (10:378).

(3) Harper promoted widely the idea that small, weak four-year denominational colleges should abandon their efforts to attempt four-year's work but, instead, should concentrate on doing a good job as two-year colleges. At a National Educational Association meeting held at Charleston, South Carolina, on July 10, 1900, President Harper described this needed reform as "college decapitation." There were at least two hundred colleges in the United States, he said, which could profitably turn to the practice of offering only the first two years of work, thus, in effect, becoming junior colleges (5:14-15).

(4) Harper also promoted the idea of upgrading and reorganizing secondary-level work in the Middle West through "affiliation" and "cooperation" associations with the University of Chicago. By meeting certain standards, private

secondary schools could become "affiliated academies," or, for all practical purposes, "off-campus" departments of the University. Others of a public nature could enter into "cooperation" with the University. While remaining independent, these latter schools would closely articulate their programs with the University which would impose certain standards and controls with respect to quality, curricular development, examinations, and the like (17:212).

While President Harper was the dominant university leader of the junior college movement in the mid-western area, another important early influence was Professor A. F. Lange of the University of California. Having studied at the University of Michigan in 1883 while the new "university" plan was being tried there, Lange later, as a Professor of English between 1892 and 1907, promoted the same idea at the University of California. Still later, as Dean of the School of Education, Dr. Lange urged the adoption of the junior college idea throughout his state (5:22). He played a significant role, before he died in 1924, in shaping the junior college movement in California, which by 1919 claimed twenty-one, or more than half, of all public junior colleges in the United States (13:47).

Although university support of the junior college idea, as exemplified by President Harper and Dean Lange, was perhaps the most important positive internal influence during the experimental period, another very significant force was the tendency of secondary schools to extend their offerings beyond the fourth year. At the same time that

some of the universities were aiming at eliminating the first two years, a number of secondary schools were independently extending their programs by offering high school graduates opportunities to take additional course work (5:13).

In his 1919 study, McDowell stated that one of the factors that had facilitated the development of junior colleges was the fact that there had never been any clear rationale behind the secondary school as it was then organized. The high school, he said, had been more or less an "accidental product of history," and, consequently, secondary education lent itself to further experimentation (13:23). As will be noted in the next chapter, Joliet Junior College was, to some extent, the natural outgrowth of a previous practice of Joliet High School offering students the opportunity to take postgraduate work of additional high school level and of college level.

In addition to university support and the tendency toward high school elongation, there was another important internal influence, according to McDowell, in the way of a desire among many normal schools to offer college work. This desire, McDowell stated, stemmed mainly from the fact that, with the widespread development of secondary education, a great many normal schools had adopted the view that they were the logical institutions to train secondary as well as elementary school teachers, and that, therefore, they should offer at least some college courses. Among

the four different types of junior colleges which McDowell recognized at the time of his study were "normal schools accredited for two years of college work" (13:100). The other three types included the lower liberal arts divisions of universities, public high schools which had extended their offerings to include two years of college work, and formerly small four-year private colleges which, as President Harper had recommended, had voluntarily limited their offerings to the freshman and sophomore years (13:100).

In general, it is believed that McDowell, though he may have somewhat exaggerated the trends in normal schools, correctly appraised the major internal influences which facilitated and encouraged the development of junior colleges during the experimental period. Doubtlessly the following factors at least may be considered as major positive internal influences: (1) university support, particularly at the University of Chicago and at the University of California, for the junior college idea; (2) a tendency for some secondary schools to elongate their services, offering students the opportunity to do work beyond the fourth year; and (3) increasing importance and uncertain nature of secondary education itself.

Negative Influences. As has been noted, President Harper in 1903 predicted that

ten years from now the high schools all over the country will have added a fifth and sixth year and will be doing college work which now falls to the first two years of college courses (10:378).

The first part of the paper discusses the importance of the study of the history of the United States. It is argued that a knowledge of the past is essential for a full understanding of the present. The author then goes on to discuss the various factors which have shaped the development of the United States, including the influence of the British, the Spanish, and the French. The author also discusses the role of the American people in the development of the country, and the importance of the American Revolution. The paper concludes by discussing the future of the United States, and the role of the American people in shaping that future.

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Yet, as has been shown, by 1914, only ten public junior colleges had been opened in the United States. The fact that President Harper's prediction fell so far short of realization would suggest that in addition to positive internal influences tending to promote the development of junior colleges there were also negative forces tending to counteract or inhibit the development of these institutions during the experimental period.

It is somewhat unfortunate that McDowell, like Fretwell at a later date, aimed only at discovering those positive influences on junior college development. At the same time, however, his study indirectly reveals certain internal factors which may well be interpreted as representing negative forces.

Of these, perhaps the most important was the apparent fact that a great many secondary schools simply were not competent in terms of staff and facilities to undertake college work. When all is said, the proposals made by President Harper and by some other university leaders rested upon one principal assumption: that secondary schools could offer the same kind of college work as students previously had received only in the freshmen and sophomore years of colleges. This assumption could further be broken down into: (a) secondary schools had teachers capable of giving college instruction, and (b) secondary schools had, or could acquire, the facilities needed for offering college level work. Yet McDowell, using a questionnaire method, concluded in 1919 that "fully 50 per cent of the junior

colleges studied need to raise their standards. . . ." (13:103). He added that "if the junior colleges are to justify their attempt to offer the first two years of standard college work, they must secure better trained faculties" (13:103).

Another early writer, Angell, writing in 1915, drew attention to the importance of adequate resources in the development of junior colleges. The criteria which he deemed most important for the organization of junior colleges were the following: (1) generous financial support, (2) sound qualifications of teachers, (3) adequate library and laboratory facilities, and (4) "genuine and reasonable energetic" local demand (1:301). It is very probable that only in a relatively few secondary school settings did these needed assets and resources prevail.

Of importance, too, was a certain amount of conservative opposition within the educational system to the reorganization proposals of men such as Dr. Harper and Professor Lange. Every innovation of any kind always disturbs vested interests and incites opposition. It is probably for this reason, more than any other, that all innovations and reforms must pass through a slow-growth experimental stage. The rapid-growth stage begins to appear only when this opposition has been overcome and when the innovation or reform has been accepted as being a generally desirable part of the social fabric. Experience shows that reformers of all kinds tend to underestimate the amount of conservative opposition to their ideas.

While, as has been shown, there was a considerable amount of university support for the junior college idea during the experimental stage; there was also some opposition from colleges and universities. This fact was made clear after President Harper in the fall of 1902 at a meeting of the Affiliated and Co-operating Schools of the University of Chicago had formed a commission of twenty-one persons to study (from the points of view of the elementary school, the secondary school, and the colleges and universities--seven men on each committee), the following proposition:

- (1) To connect the work of the eighth grade of the elementary school with that of the secondary school.
- (2) To extend the work of the secondary school to include the first two years of college work.
- (3) To reduce the work of the seven years thus grouped to six years.
- (4) To make it possible for the best class of students to do the work in five years (18:1-3).

At the November 4, 1903, meeting of the Seventeenth Educational Conference of the Academies and High Schools Affiliating and Co-operating with the University of Chicago, the three seven-member committees gave their reports. The Committee on Elementary Schools believed that the part of the proposition respecting elementary schools was justified and desirable. Similarly, the Committee on Secondary Schools, headed by J. Stanley Brown of Joliet, reported favorably for the general proposition. The Committee on Colleges, however, was somewhat less enthusiastic than the

other two groups. Calling attention to the fact that communications with a number of colleges and universities had raised serious objections to the proposition, the Committee itself gave only lukewarm support to the proposition and two of the seven members dissented even from this mild endorsement (16:1-22).

A year later at the meeting of the Eighteenth Educational Conference of the Academies and High Schools in Relation with the University of Chicago, a second report made by the Commission of Twenty-one indicated that the

questions involved are of a most difficult and fundamental character, and that the data on the basis of which conclusions may be reached are few and indefinite (9:23-24).

There was a need, the Commission decided, for empirical facts as well as philosophy. Consequently, a new commission of fifteen persons was formed to make empirical investigations of some of the problems connected with implementing the earlier general proposition (9:24-25).

A number of years earlier, President Harper, too, had encountered difficulties in effecting a sharp division of college and university work at the University of Chicago. Within the University, much controversy developed with respect to what should be taught in the academic or junior college divisions. The principal issue centered around the role of Latin. Thus, in 1893, Harper concluded that the time fully to separate the college from the

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university had not yet arrived: "The line between the two," he said, "has not yet been clearly drawn" (17:127).

During the experimental period 1900 to 1919, negative internal forces--the principal ones of which appear to have been the generally low quality of personnel and facilities at the secondary level, opposition of the conservatives within the ranks of higher education, and the existence of multiple practical problems which needed to be studied and solved before reorganization of the school system could proceed--probably outweighed the positive internal influences so that during the experimental period development and growth of junior colleges proceeded at a slow rate. Earlier writers in focusing almost entirely upon positive factors have probably grossly underestimated the importance and strength of negative internal influences during this period.

External Influences

There were, in addition, external forces--that is, influences occurring outside the educational system--which need to be considered in order to make a depth appraisal. Like the internal influences, these forces were of both a positive and negative nature.

Positive Influences. While a multiplicity of external positive influences might be noted, evidence indicates that the most important can be grouped under three headings as follows:

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- (1) Those originating in the political system.
- (2) Those originating in the economic system.
- (3) Those originating in the general social system.

Within the general area of the political system which includes the legislative subsystem, the factor of dominant importance seems to have been the development of legal recognition of the junior college idea during the latter part of the experimental period. The earliest manifestation of this recognition occurred in 1907 when the State of California passed permissive legislation to enable certain communities to establish junior colleges (13:14). While the 1907 law was of an enabling nature only, it, nevertheless, gave the junior college idea some legal status and served as a precedent for the later enactment of more positive measures. It was followed in 1917 by California's Ballard Act. Authorizing communities with a tax valuation of \$3 million or more to organize junior college districts, this Act also provided for the use of State and County funds to support junior colleges on the same basis as secondary schools (13:100).

Following the lead of California, other state legislatures, too, passed laws bearing in some way upon junior colleges during the last half of the experimental period. As of 1919, the following states, in addition to California, had such laws: Idaho, Michigan, Texas, and Wisconsin. Moreover, in all parts of the nation, there was, according to McDowell, "an increasing tendency to regard these institutions (junior colleges) as an integral part of the system

1. The first part of the document is a letter from the President of the United States to the Congress, dated January 3, 1862. It is a very long letter, and it contains a great deal of information about the state of the country at that time. The President talks about the war with Mexico, and about the situation in the South. He also talks about the economy, and about the need for more money. The letter is written in a very formal style, and it is very long. It is a very important document, and it is one of the most important documents in the history of the United States.

2. The second part of the document is a letter from the Secretary of the Treasury to the President, dated January 3, 1862. It is a very short letter, and it contains a great deal of information about the state of the Treasury. The Secretary talks about the need for more money, and about the need for more bonds. He also talks about the need for more gold, and about the need for more silver. The letter is written in a very formal style, and it is very short. It is a very important document, and it is one of the most important documents in the history of the United States.

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of public education and hence as objects of public support" (13:100).

Another influence which may be regarded as being related to the political or quasi-legal sphere was the development of interest in establishing standards for junior colleges. By 1919, the state departments of education in seven states--California, Illinois, Kansas, Texas, Utah, Virginia, and West Virginia--had made some efforts to formulate standards. Similar work, too, had been undertaken by such agencies as the Kentucky Association of Colleges and Universities, the College Section of the State Teachers Association of Texas, the North Central Association of Schools and Colleges, and the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States (13:102).

Turning from the political to the economic system, the positive influence of dominant importance was doubtlessly the rapid development of mechanized production between 1900 and 1920. At the turn of the century, as shown by Table I, mechanical equipment and tools accounted for only 38 percent of all energy expended in productive economic endeavor, the remaining energy being supplied by animal power (52 percent) and human labor (10 percent). By 1920, however, the proportion of energy supplied by human muscles had declined to 5 percent while the proportion derived from machine power had increased to 65 percent. The change away from human and animal labor toward machine production, both on the farm and in the factories, was of tremendous importance for as a team of sociologists

T A B L E I
PROPORTIONS OF ENERGY SUPPLIED BY MEN,
ANIMALS, AND MACHINES, SELECTED
YEARS, 1850-1930

Years	Percent of Energy		
	Human Energy	Animal Energy	Machine Power
1850	15	79	6
1880	12	58	30
1900	10	52	38
1910	8	47	45
1920	5	30	65
1930	4	12	84

SOURCE: George A. Lundbert, et. al., Sociology (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1958), pp. 706-707.



has written, "social change is closely related to changing amounts of available energy" (12:698).

From the standpoint of junior college development, this dominant economic influence had at least three major positive effects. These were as follows:

(1) Greater utilization of machine energy gave to increasingly larger numbers of young people the leisure needed for pursuing education beyond the high school level.

(2) Greater utilization of machine energy created an economic need for advanced technical education such as could be more effectively given by two-year colleges close at home.

(3) Greater utilization of machine energy fostered the rapid development of an urban middle-class with middle-class values emphasizing education beyond the high school as a means of occupational success and upward social mobility.

With respect to the first point, there can be no doubt that between 1900 and 1920 there was a tremendous expansion of the number of people in colleges. Between 1900 and 1920, as shown by Table II, college enrollment jumped from 237,592 to 597,857. The relative gain amounted to 151.6 percent as compared with an increase of only 23.8 percent in the population of persons aged 18 to 21 years, inclusive. One side effect of this continually increasing college crowd, according to McDowell, was that of making university leaders more and more prone to favor the junior

The first part of the paper discusses the importance of the study of the history of the United States. It is argued that a knowledge of the past is essential for a full understanding of the present. The author then goes on to discuss the various factors which have shaped the development of the United States, including the influence of the British, the Spanish, and the French. He also discusses the role of the American people in the creation of the new nation. The paper concludes by stating that the study of the history of the United States is a task of great importance, and that it is one which should be undertaken by all who are interested in the future of the country.

T A B L E I I

NUMBERS OF PERSONS ENROLLED IN INSTITUTIONS OF
HIGHER LEARNING COMPARED WITH THE NUMBER
OF PERSONS 18 TO 21 YEARS OLD, BY
CENSUS YEARS, 1890-1940

Years	College Enrollment		Population, 18-21 Years	
	No.	% Increase Over 1890	No.	% Increase Over 1890
1890	156,756	---	5,151,067	---
1900	237,592	51.57	5,930,765	15.14
1910	355,215	126.60	7,335,453	42.41
1920	597,857	281.39	7,343,794	42.57
1930	1,100,737	602.20	9,026,741	75.24
1940	1,493,203	852.55	9,753,537	89.30

SOURCE: United States Office of Education, as reported in
Coleman R. Griffith and Hortense Blackstone, The
Junior College in Illinois, p. 90.

college idea (13:98). It may well be that without this tremendous upsurge of demand for college education and the consequent taxing of existing facilities, universities would have been reluctant to react favorably to and even promote the junior college idea.

Regarding the second consequence of increasing mechanization, there is little doubt that it helped to create a growing need for local communities to provide advanced technical and vocational education. As the need for muscle power declined, job opportunities in cities came more and more to require vocational knowledge and skills beyond those which could be acquired in the secondary schools. From questionnaires sent to junior colleges opening in 1919, McDowell found that 30 percent of them had been founded, partially at least, to meet local demand for vocational training. McDowell also found that 77 percent of these schools stated that the principal force behind their development had been local demand for junior colleges as completion schools rather than as preparatory or feeder institutions for the universities (13:25).

Greater mechanization of economic endeavor also had the effect of vastly increasing the urban population. At the beginning of the experimental period, in 1900, as shown by Chart 2, American society was still predominantly rural--only 39.7 percent of the people living in cities and towns of more than 2,500 population. By 1920, however, slightly more than one-half of all people lived in urban settings. During the period 1900 to 1920, according to

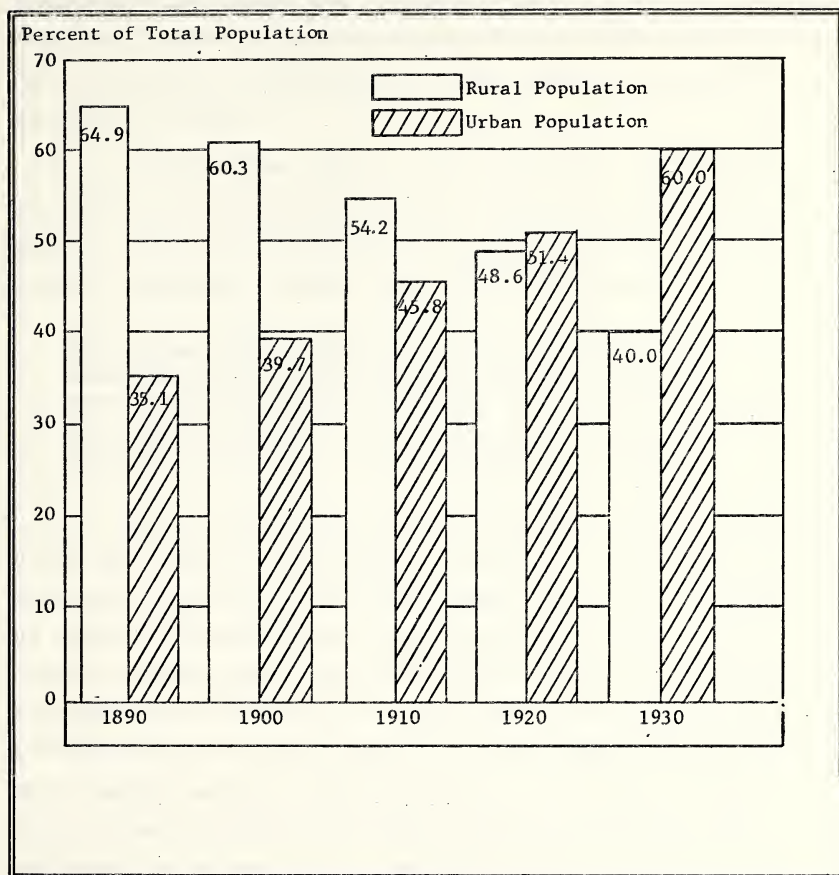


Chart 2. Rural and Urban Distribution of the Population of the United States of Census Years, 1890-1930.

Source: Data for 1930 taken from U.S. Bureau of the Census, Fifteenth Census of the United States: 1930, Population, Vol. III, Part 1, Table 18, Urban and Rural Population of the United States, By Color and Nativity: 1910 to 1930, p. 13.

Data for 1890-1920 taken from U.S. Bureau of the Census, Fourteenth Census of the United States Taken in the Year 1920, Volume I, Population, 1920, Number and Distribution of Inhabitants, Table 30, Urban and Rural Population, by Divisions and States: 1890-1920, p. 46-47.



Faulkner, "the farmer was rapidly ceasing to be the typical American; rather he was giving way to the middle-class city man, the clerk, the shopkeeper, the salesman the small executive" (6:569).

As the urban middle class increased, so did the incentive for continuing education beyond the high school level. Writing of the same period described by Faulkner, another historian, Hacker, made this observation:

Nothing was more interesting to witness than the unanimity with which twentieth-century America accepted a collegiate education as a prime requisite for success, whether the chosen career was to be in business, politics, or the professions (8:656).

Within the general social system as within the political and economic environments, there can be detected several major factors to influence positively the development of junior colleges during the experimental period. Of these, probably none was more important than the geographical remoteness of much of the population from existing institutions of higher learning. While urbanization developed rapidly between 1900 and 1920, a great many people still lived in relatively small towns far distant from colleges and universities. Moreover, the automobile had not yet made the American people as mobile as they were soon to become. It was not until 1909 that the first 800 "Tin Lizzes" rolled out of Henry Ford's factory. Consequently, as McDowell found in his 1919 study, much of the public demand for junior colleges was based on the

1. The first part of the report deals with the general situation of the country and the position of the various groups of the population. It is a very general and superficial treatment of the subject, but it gives a good impression of the general situation.

2. The second part of the report deals with the economic situation of the country. It is a very general and superficial treatment of the subject, but it gives a good impression of the general situation.

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7. The seventh part of the report deals with the foreign relations of the country. It is a very general and superficial treatment of the subject, but it gives a good impression of the general situation.

remoteness of communities from existing institutions of higher learning. More than 40 percent of the junior colleges which responded to McDowell's questionnaire gave "remoteness" as one of the reasons their schools had been established (13:27). Later, Griffith was to note that "publicly supported institutions (junior colleges) have appeared most frequently in areas in which education in privately endowed colleges has not been developed" (7:15).

Another social system influence which is more difficult to relate directly to the development of junior colleges but which was probably of significant force was the general reforming spirit which pervaded America during the first two decades of the twentieth century. Known by historians as "The Progressive Era," the period from 1900 to the end of World War II was notable for its rejection (or dilution) of the old Protestant Ethic and for its tendency to promote reforms and innovations that would benefit the common man. The key social characteristic of the age, Faulkner has written, was "a reforming zeal, a quest for social justice that would remake the old America" (6:573).

The Progressive Era, in truth, was really the beginning of the modern welfare state. During this time, intellectuals and the common man alike revolted against the laissez faire dogma of the preceding several decades. The political corruption and other abuses of big business and of the "Robber Barons" shortly before were widely exposed through the magazine journalism of "muckrakers." At the highest political level, Theodore Roosevelt and

1. The first part of the document discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all transactions and activities. It emphasizes that this is essential for ensuring transparency and accountability in the organization's operations.

2. The second part of the document outlines the various methods and techniques used to collect and analyze data. It includes a detailed description of the data collection process, as well as the various statistical methods used to analyze the data.

3. The third part of the document discusses the various factors that can influence the results of the data analysis. It includes a detailed description of the various factors, as well as the various methods used to control for these factors.

4. The fourth part of the document discusses the various methods used to present the results of the data analysis. It includes a detailed description of the various methods, as well as the various factors that can influence the results of the data analysis.

5. The fifth part of the document discusses the various methods used to interpret the results of the data analysis. It includes a detailed description of the various methods, as well as the various factors that can influence the results of the data analysis.

6. The sixth part of the document discusses the various methods used to validate the results of the data analysis. It includes a detailed description of the various methods, as well as the various factors that can influence the results of the data analysis.

7. The seventh part of the document discusses the various methods used to communicate the results of the data analysis. It includes a detailed description of the various methods, as well as the various factors that can influence the results of the data analysis.

8. The eighth part of the document discusses the various methods used to implement the results of the data analysis. It includes a detailed description of the various methods, as well as the various factors that can influence the results of the data analysis.

9. The ninth part of the document discusses the various methods used to evaluate the results of the data analysis. It includes a detailed description of the various methods, as well as the various factors that can influence the results of the data analysis.

10. The tenth part of the document discusses the various methods used to improve the results of the data analysis. It includes a detailed description of the various methods, as well as the various factors that can influence the results of the data analysis.

then Woodrow Wilson lent to the American spirit an idealism that had been completely lacking during the last three nineteenth century decades. State legislatures, too, under the impact of the new mentality, enacted much social legislation (for example: child labor and workmen's compensation laws) which, a few years earlier, would have shocked the upholders of laissez faire. Perhaps most important, the Supreme Court for the first time abandoned its emphasis upon protecting property rights and began to take a more liberal stand for human rights. In short, the general social climate was favorable for the promotion and adoption of innovations and social reforms that promised to give the common man "a chance to share in the cultural and intellectual heritage so long monopolized by a fortunate elite" (11:269). Doubtlessly many Americans in addition to viewing the high schools as the "people's college" also saw the public junior colleges as an avenue towards social and economic advancement.

Negative Influences. The external influences affecting the development of junior colleges, however, were not all positive in nature. Against the facilitating forces discussed above must be balanced such inhibiting political, economic, and social facts as the following:

(1) Engagement of the United States at the end of the experimental period in World War I.

(2) The existence, despite the rise in the standard of living which the new machine society had produced for many, of a vast amount of poverty.

1. The first part of the document is a letter from the President of the United States to the Congress, dated January 3, 1863. It is a very important document, as it contains the President's message to Congress regarding the state of the Union and the progress of the war.

2. The second part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the War Department, dated January 10, 1863. It contains a detailed account of the military operations of the Army during the year 1862, and the progress of the war.

3. The third part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Navy Department, dated January 10, 1863. It contains a detailed account of the naval operations of the Navy during the year 1862, and the progress of the war.

4. The fourth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Department of the Interior, dated January 10, 1863. It contains a detailed account of the operations of the Department during the year 1862, and the progress of the war.

5. The fifth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Department of the Treasury, dated January 10, 1863. It contains a detailed account of the operations of the Department during the year 1862, and the progress of the war.

6. The sixth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Department of the State, dated January 10, 1863. It contains a detailed account of the operations of the Department during the year 1862, and the progress of the war.

(3) The existence among the urban population of a large mass of unassimilated newly-arrived immigrants.

While direct effects are difficult to document, World War I may be counted as a negative influence in that it resulted in large numbers of college-age men being drafted and in that it channeled much of the nation's resources into war production. It is well to remember, however, that the greatest growth of junior colleges during the experimental period occurred between 1915 and 1919 when twenty-one new institutions were opened.

Since public support of junior colleges is dependent upon a favorable tax base, it seems safe to say, too, that the widespread poverty which existed during the first two decades of the twentieth century was a deterrent to the promotion and development of public junior colleges. Certainly poverty was a very real fact of American society at that time. In his classic study Poverty published in 1904, Robert Hunter concluded that 13 percent of all Americans-- or about 10,000,000⁰⁰⁰ people--existed on less than a poverty line income of \$300 a year for the rural South and \$460 for the urban North (11:267). Moreover, real income of urban workers between 1900 and the beginning of World War I appears to have declined (6:573). In 1914, there was widespread agreement among economists that "few adult workers earned wages high enough to ensure a minimum standard of living" (6:573). To some extent at least, the low wages were related to the problem discussed below.

1. The first part of the document is a letter from the President of the United States to the Congress, dated January 3, 1862. It contains a report on the state of the Union and the progress of the war against the rebellion. The President mentions the recent victories of the Union forces and expresses confidence in the ultimate success of the cause.

2. The second part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Treasury, dated January 10, 1862. It details the financial condition of the government and the measures taken to meet the demands of the war. The report notes the increase in public debt and the need for continued support from the Congress.

3. The third part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Interior, dated January 15, 1862. It discusses the management of the public lands and the progress of the various departments under his jurisdiction. The report highlights the importance of maintaining the integrity of the public domain.

4. The fourth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Navy, dated January 20, 1862. It provides an overview of the naval forces and the activities of the fleet. The report mentions the construction of new ships and the readiness of the navy for service.

5. The fifth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the War, dated January 25, 1862. It describes the military operations and the status of the troops. The report notes the expansion of the army and the success of the campaigns in the field.

6. The sixth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the State, dated February 1, 1862. It covers the diplomatic relations of the United States and the progress of the various departments. The report mentions the recent treaties and the efforts to maintain peace with the other nations.

7. The seventh part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Agriculture, dated February 5, 1862. It discusses the state of the agricultural industry and the measures taken to promote the welfare of the farmers. The report notes the importance of the agricultural sector to the economy.

8. The eighth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Education, dated February 10, 1862. It provides information on the state of the educational system and the progress of the various departments. The report mentions the efforts to improve the quality of education and the support for the schools.

9. The ninth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Commerce, dated February 15, 1862. It discusses the state of the commercial industry and the measures taken to promote trade. The report notes the importance of commerce to the economy and the efforts to maintain open markets.

10. The tenth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Marine, dated February 20, 1862. It provides information on the state of the marine industry and the progress of the various departments. The report mentions the efforts to improve the safety and efficiency of maritime travel.

The task of promoting junior colleges and securing public support of them was doubtlessly hindered by the large influx of immigrants which took place in the early part of the twentieth century. "Between 1903 and 1914," according to Faulkner, "there were but two years in which the immigration fell below 700,000, and in six of these years it rose beyond the million mark" (6:570). Then, too, those immigrants who arrived after about 1896 came mainly from Southern and Eastern Europe--Austria-Hungary, Italy, and Russian Poland--and, consequently, created entirely different assimilation problems than had the Western Europeans who had predominated in earlier immigration waves. At least 27 percent of these later immigrants were illiterate, and, among the Italians, the proportion who could neither read nor write their own language ran as high as 50 percent. Finally, unlike the earlier newcomers who had settled mainly on the frontier, the later immigrants congregated in urban centers where they were "easily subjected to political and economic exploitation" (6:570).

These negative external forces doubtlessly had some effect upon junior college development but it is very probable that, on the whole, the positive external influences outweighed the negative. If this generalization is accepted, then it must be concluded that slow growth and progress of junior colleges during the experimental period resulted mainly from negative internal influences which were of sufficient power to counteract the positive internal forces.

An analysis may now be made of the influences affecting the development of junior colleges during the second rapid growth stage--the period from 1920 to 1929.

Major Influences Affecting Junior College

Development During the Rapid Growth

Period, 1920-1929

While the problem of the last analysis was to account for the slow growth of junior colleges during the period 1900 to 1919, the need now is to determine those internal and external factors which helped to explain the rapid growth which began to take place after World War I. It must be remembered in considering the facts below that some of the forces originating in the earlier period and discussed in the previous analysis doubtlessly continued into this latter stage. Only new or different influences are given attention in the following paragraphs.

Internal Influences

During the second developmental stage, probably the major positive internal influence was the past success of the earlier junior colleges. While not all institutions started before 1919 prospered or even survived, others were able to prove their worth. These institutions, which included the first one to be opened, Joliet Junior College, served as examples to other communities and provided promotional arguments for proponents of new junior colleges.

By the early part of this second period, a number of writers were suggesting that the junior college had emerged from its infancy and no longer was to be regarded as an experiment. Writing in 1923, for example, Blauch stated that the success of some of the earlier junior colleges had "demonstrated that the junior college has a place in our educational progress" (2:77). He went on to predict, making the same mistake that President Harper earlier had made, that the name junior college would probably soon be dropped and that "the work the junior college is now doing will probably be definitely organized as a part of the system of secondary education, where it properly belongs" (2:77).

For another positive internal factor, there developed during the early part of the rapid growth period a better understanding of the proper functions of junior colleges. When he published his 1919 study, McDowell stated that the term junior college was "widely accepted as applying to those institutions, either public or private, which offer the first two years of standard college courses above and beyond the standard fifteen units of high-school work" (13:6). Likewise, Thomas, in a 1926 doctoral dissertation accepted at Stanford University, concluded that junior colleges were those two-year institutions which fulfilled four basic functions: (1) a Popularizing Function, (2) a Preparatory Function, (3) a Terminal Function, and (4) a Guidance Function (5:19-20).

1911

1. The first part of the report deals with the general situation of the country and the progress of the work during the year. It is divided into two main sections: the first section deals with the general situation of the country and the progress of the work during the year, and the second section deals with the results of the work during the year.

2. The second part of the report deals with the results of the work during the year. It is divided into two main sections: the first section deals with the results of the work during the year, and the second section deals with the results of the work during the year.

3. The third part of the report deals with the results of the work during the year. It is divided into two main sections: the first section deals with the results of the work during the year, and the second section deals with the results of the work during the year.

4. The fourth part of the report deals with the results of the work during the year. It is divided into two main sections: the first section deals with the results of the work during the year, and the second section deals with the results of the work during the year.

5. The fifth part of the report deals with the results of the work during the year. It is divided into two main sections: the first section deals with the results of the work during the year, and the second section deals with the results of the work during the year.

6. The sixth part of the report deals with the results of the work during the year. It is divided into two main sections: the first section deals with the results of the work during the year, and the second section deals with the results of the work during the year.

7. The seventh part of the report deals with the results of the work during the year. It is divided into two main sections: the first section deals with the results of the work during the year, and the second section deals with the results of the work during the year.

8. The eighth part of the report deals with the results of the work during the year. It is divided into two main sections: the first section deals with the results of the work during the year, and the second section deals with the results of the work during the year.

9. The ninth part of the report deals with the results of the work during the year. It is divided into two main sections: the first section deals with the results of the work during the year, and the second section deals with the results of the work during the year.

10. The tenth part of the report deals with the results of the work during the year. It is divided into two main sections: the first section deals with the results of the work during the year, and the second section deals with the results of the work during the year.

While the nature and functions of junior colleges were being studied and refined in a way to encourage further development, one internal negative handicap was the lack of a definite philosophical basis for junior college education. This lack was pointed out as a major shortcoming by Eby, who, in 1937, told a group of junior college leaders that the aims of their institutions were "highly superficial" and that these aims in no way related "to what is actually going on in the heart and mind of the student" (3:415).

External Influences

Although rapid growth could not have taken place without a generally favorable climate within the educational system, it is very probable that the principal factors stimulating rapid growth were external in nature. In addition to continuance of previously discussed trends, such as rapid expansion of the collegiate population, which grew from 597,857 in 1920 to 1,100,737 in 1930 (Table II), even greater mechanization (Table I), and steady increasing urbanization (Chart 2), there was a degree of economic prosperity during the 1920's such as Americans had never experienced before. Although American society included depressed groups, such as the farmers, the 1920's, after a brief recession which set in with the end of the war, were marked by "unheard of purchasing power" (11:282). Boosted by the rapid development of the automobile and related industries, by widespread road building, and by such

innovations as radio and the films, the economy was on the boom.

More important than the boom, perhaps, was the widespread optimism that there would be no end to material progress. America was on the move and would keep on moving until, in time, virtually everyone would be rich. Everything, said the boosters, would get bigger and bigger and better and better. Even ordinarily sober economists talked about the possibility--even the responsibility--of almost everybody becoming rich through investing in the common stocks of modern industry. With such an optimistic temper of mind prevailing, communities as well as individuals (who during the 1920's were introduced to the installment plan) had little fear of plunging heavily into debt.

On the other hand, there were aspects of the post-war period's political, economic, and social environment which would not seem to be particularly conducive to the promotion of cultural services. Often described as "The Jazz Age," the 1920's were extremely materialistic and frivolous in value orientations. Moreover, they represented a reactionary period, being in many ways the complete reversal of the liberal, reforming, and idealistic period between 1900 and 1919. One economic historian has summed up "The Jazz Age" as:

. . . [A]n age of prosperity and disillusionment, of jingoism and isolationism, of fundamentalism in popular religion and open corruption in democratic politics, of gangsterism and apathy, of good writing

1. The first part of the document is a letter from the President of the United States to the Congress, dated January 3, 1862. It is a very important document, as it contains the President's views on the state of the Union and the progress of the war.

2. The second part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the War Department, dated January 10, 1862. It contains a detailed account of the military operations of the Army during the year 1861.

3. The third part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Navy Department, dated January 15, 1862. It contains a detailed account of the naval operations of the Navy during the year 1861.

4. The fourth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Department of the Interior, dated January 20, 1862. It contains a detailed account of the operations of the Department during the year 1861.

5. The fifth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Department of the Treasury, dated January 25, 1862. It contains a detailed account of the operations of the Department during the year 1861.

6. The sixth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Department of the State, dated January 30, 1862. It contains a detailed account of the operations of the Department during the year 1861.

7. The seventh part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Department of the War, dated February 5, 1862. It contains a detailed account of the operations of the Department during the year 1861.

8. The eighth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Department of the Navy, dated February 10, 1862. It contains a detailed account of the operations of the Department during the year 1861.

9. The ninth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Department of the Interior, dated February 15, 1862. It contains a detailed account of the operations of the Department during the year 1861.

10. The tenth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Department of the Treasury, dated February 20, 1862. It contains a detailed account of the operations of the Department during the year 1861.

11. The eleventh part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Department of the State, dated February 25, 1862. It contains a detailed account of the operations of the Department during the year 1861.

12. The twelfth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Department of the War, dated March 1, 1862. It contains a detailed account of the operations of the Department during the year 1861.

13. The thirteenth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Department of the Navy, dated March 5, 1862. It contains a detailed account of the operations of the Department during the year 1861.

and bigoted thinking, of prohibition and heavy drinking, of "rugged individualism" and mass entertainment. Suffering a severe hangover from World War I, the nation delivered itself up to a wave of intolerance, hatred and guilt. A witch-hunting hysteria broke out, textbooks were censored, aliens deported, pacifists denied citizenship, and radical movements (even socialism) outlawed by state governments (11:281-282).

The kind of climate described is not one which would easily be associated with serious-minded dedication to education, and doubtlessly, with the fresh new revival of laissez faire and Social Darwinism, there were many who opposed public junior colleges as a form of "Communism." Other "rugged individualists" doubtlessly raised an objection which, according to Griffith and Blackstone, was still popular in 1945. This was the objection to the effect that since junior colleges provided vocational training of a type roughly equivalent to that given under the old apprenticeship system, the public support of such institutions represented a subsidy to employers who were spared "developmental cost at public expense" (7:12).

Yet, it remains true that during the 1920's and particularly during the five-year period 1924 through 1929, junior college openings reached a peak that was not to be topped until after World War II. The conclusion is forced, therefore, that whatever negative forces of either an internal or external nature prevailed, they were offset by stronger positive influences. It is very probable that the dominant factor was the decade's great optimistic faith in the future of the American economy--a faith which

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received its first jolt with the stock market crash in 1929 and which, shortly thereafter, turned into the bleak pessimism of the depression period.

Now that a macro view of the influences affecting the general junior college development during the first three decades of the twentieth century has been given, detailed micro-case studies of three selected junior colleges may be made. The next chapter selects for its subject matter the development of the nation's first public junior college--that at Joliet, Illinois.

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CHAPTER III

CASE STUDY NO. 1: JOLIET JUNIOR COLLEGE

The macro analysis presented in Chapter II provides the basis for an analysis of Joliet Junior College at Joliet, Illinois, generally credited as the first public junior college in the United States (18:54; 35:4; 13:27). Located in Will County about thirty-five miles southwest of Chicago, Joliet Junior College has been in continual operation since 1902, though it was not until much later that the term junior college was commonly applied to it nor that it was organized as a separate division apart from the four-year program of Joliet Township High School. Unlike several other early institutions, it not only survived but has continued without interruption since its origin. As a pioneer in the junior college movement, it is an excellent school to study from the standpoint of evolutionary development.

Although Joliet Junior College is still in existence, the present analysis of its development is limited to the time from its earliest beginnings to the school year 1928-1929. The study is concerned mainly with the two stages of developmental history which in the last chapter were described as the experimental period (1902 to 1919) and the rapid-growth period (1920 to 1929). Specific objectives are as follows:



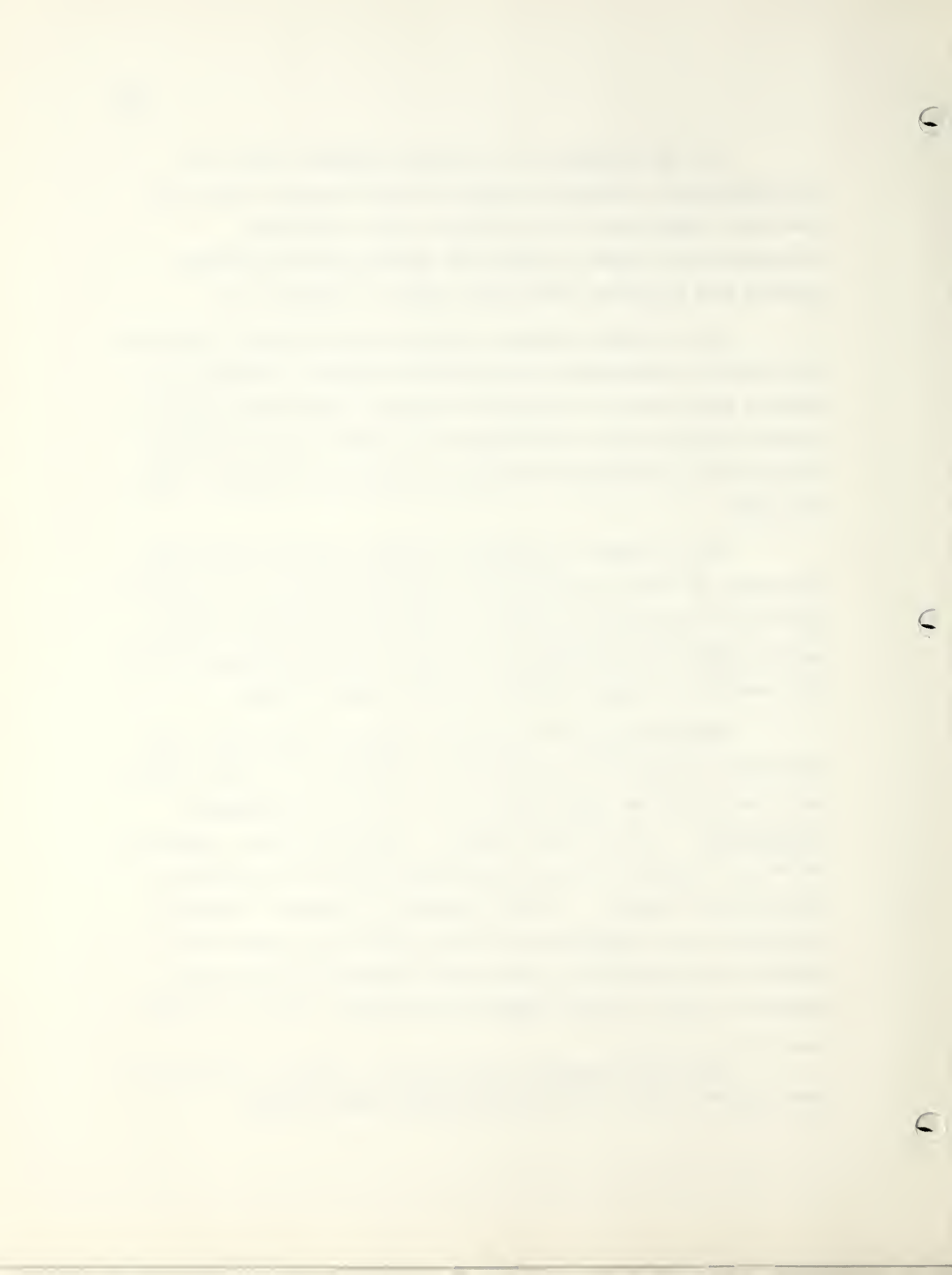
(1) To analyze, in a broad, general way, the developmental pattern of Joliet Junior College from its earliest beginning to the school year 1928-1929, interpreting trends in light of generalizations about growth and progress previously made in Chapter II.

(2) To make a depth analysis of the most important and readily documented internal and external factors, of both a positive and a negative nature, which had important influences upon the development of Joliet Junior College during the previously described experimental period, 1902 to 1919.

(3) To make a somewhat briefer and less detailed analysis of those internal and external factors, of both a positive and negative nature, which had important influences upon the development of Joliet Junior College during the second, or rapid growth period, 1920 to 1929.

While Chapter II and this chapter have their similarities, there is one important difference. That difference concerns the meanings given to the term internal influences. In the last chapter, influences were regarded as being internal if they originated within the nation's educational system. In this chapter,¹ however, internal influences are regarded as being limited to those originating specifically in the Joliet Township High School system of which Joliet Junior College was, and is, a part.

¹In the following two chapters internal influences are limited also to the institutions under study.



On the basis of the rationale used in Chapter II, the influence of the University of Chicago was deemed to be of an internal nature. By the changed emphasis of this chapter, in contrast, influences originating in the University of Chicago or in any other educational institution not included in the Joliet Township High School system or its antecedents are thought of as external forces.

Interpretation of Developmental Patterns,

1902-1903 to 1928-1929

The developmental pattern of Joliet Junior College closely conforms to the macro picture revealed in Chapter II. That is to say, the years 1902-1903 to 1918-1919 seem clearly to represent a slow growth experimental stage whereas the period from 1919-1920 to 1928-1929 can aptly be described as one of rapid growth and progress. On the basis of enrollment data given in Table III, one might logically set the school year 1922-1923 as the real beginning of the second stage but it is more logical to think of this period as starting in 1919-1920 not only because of the need to make the analysis consistent with the macro pattern but also because of the fact that the school year 1919-1920 represented a change in administration. At that time, J. Stanley Brown, who served as Superintendent throughout the entire experimental period, was followed by L. W. Smith, who continued as the chief administrative officer until near the end of the rapid growth period--through the school year 1927-1928--when he was succeeded by W. W. Haggard.

The following is a list of the names of the persons who have been appointed to the various positions in the various departments of the Government of the State of New York, for the year 1900.

For the Department of the Interior, the following persons have been appointed:

For the Department of the Marine, the following persons have been appointed:

For the Department of the Navy, the following persons have been appointed:

For the Department of the Army, the following persons have been appointed:

For the Department of the Air Force, the following persons have been appointed:

For the Department of the Coast and Geodetic Survey, the following persons have been appointed:

For the Department of the Light House, the following persons have been appointed:

T A B L E I I I

ENROLLMENT IN JOLIET JUNIOR COLLEGE DURING THE EXPERIMENTAL
PERIOD (1902-1919) AND DURING THE RAPID GROWTH PERIOD
(1919-1929) OF THE JUNIOR COLLEGE
DEVELOPMENTAL ERA

Periods and Years	Reported Enrollment	Data Not Available
<u>Experimental Period^A</u>		
1902-1903	22	
1903-1904		*
1904-1905	28	
1905-1906		*
1906-1907	24	
1907-1908	32	
1908-1909	54	
1909-1910		*
1910-1911	40	
1911-1912	52	
1912-1913	76	
1913-1914		*
1914-1915	75	
1915-1916		*
1916-1917	75	
1917-1918	108	
1918-1919	90	
<u>Rapid-growth Period^B</u>		
1919-1920	82	
1920-1921	85	
1921-1922	108	
1922-1923	130	
1923-1924	146	
1924-1925	162	
1925-1926	197	
1926-1927	207	
1927-1928	208	
1928-1929	207	

^AEnrollment figures are compiled from scattered references in the Minutes of the Joliet Township High School Board of Education.

^BAll Enrollment figures are taken from Joliet Township High School Bulletin No. 2 (June, 1928) with the exception of the figure for the last year, reported in the Joliet Township High School Bulletin, March, 1931.

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1. The first part of the report is a general introduction to the subject of the study.

2. The second part of the report is a detailed description of the methods used in the study.

3. The third part of the report is a discussion of the results of the study.

4. The fourth part of the report is a conclusion and a list of references.

5. The fifth part of the report is a list of appendices.

6. The sixth part of the report is a list of figures and tables.

7. The seventh part of the report is a list of footnotes.

8. The eighth part of the report is a list of references.

9. The ninth part of the report is a list of appendices.

10. The tenth part of the report is a list of figures and tables.

Moreover, the change from the Brown to the Smith administration in 1919 represented a distinct transition from a frankly experimental to a new period in the development of the junior college. According to the Joliet Township High School Bulletin of March 1931, "When Dr. Smith came to Joliet in 1919, the whole school entered upon a period of great and rapid expansion. This expansion was reflected in the Junior College" (30:6). At this time, too, "the name 'Joliet Junior College' was boldly assumed. . . ." (30:6). There seems to be good logical justification, therefore, for making a sharp distinction between the 1902-1903/1918-1919 experimental period and the 1919-1920/1928-1929 rapid growth years.

The difference between the two time spans is well reflected by the enrollment figures which are about the only statistical measurements of growth available, at least for the first period. As can be seen from Table III, enrollment between 1902-1903 and 1918-1919 ranged between 22 and 108 with data for five of the 17 years not available. In contrast, during the second stage, 1919-1920 to 1928-1929, enrollment grew from 82 to 208 in 1927-1928, though the 1928-1929 figure was one less. During the first period, as shown by Chart 3, enrollment averaged 56 students for the 12 years for which data are available; for the second period, average enrollment during the full ten years was 153, or nearly three times that of the former period.

With respect to the experimental period, it should be noted that Table III credits the period as beginning with

1. The first part of the document is a letter from the President of the United States to the Congress, dated January 3, 1862. It is a very long letter, and it contains a great deal of information about the state of the country at that time. The President talks about the war with Mexico, and about the situation in the South. He also talks about the economy, and about the need for more money. The letter is written in a very formal style, and it is very long. It is a very important document, and it is one of the most important documents in the history of the United States.

2. The second part of the document is a letter from the Secretary of the Treasury to the President, dated January 3, 1862. It is a very short letter, and it contains a great deal of information about the state of the Treasury. The Secretary talks about the need for more money, and about the need for more bonds. He also talks about the need for more gold, and about the need for more silver. The letter is written in a very formal style, and it is very short. It is a very important document, and it is one of the most important documents in the history of the United States.

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4. The fourth part of the document is a letter from the Secretary of the Treasury to the President, dated January 3, 1862. It is a very short letter, and it contains a great deal of information about the state of the Treasury. The Secretary talks about the need for more money, and about the need for more bonds. He also talks about the need for more gold, and about the need for more silver. The letter is written in a very formal style, and it is very short. It is a very important document, and it is one of the most important documents in the history of the United States.

5. The fifth part of the document is a letter from the Secretary of the Treasury to the Congress, dated January 3, 1862. It is a very long letter, and it contains a great deal of information about the state of the Treasury. The Secretary talks about the need for more money, and about the need for more bonds. He also talks about the need for more gold, and about the need for more silver. The letter is written in a very formal style, and it is very long. It is a very important document, and it is one of the most important documents in the history of the United States.

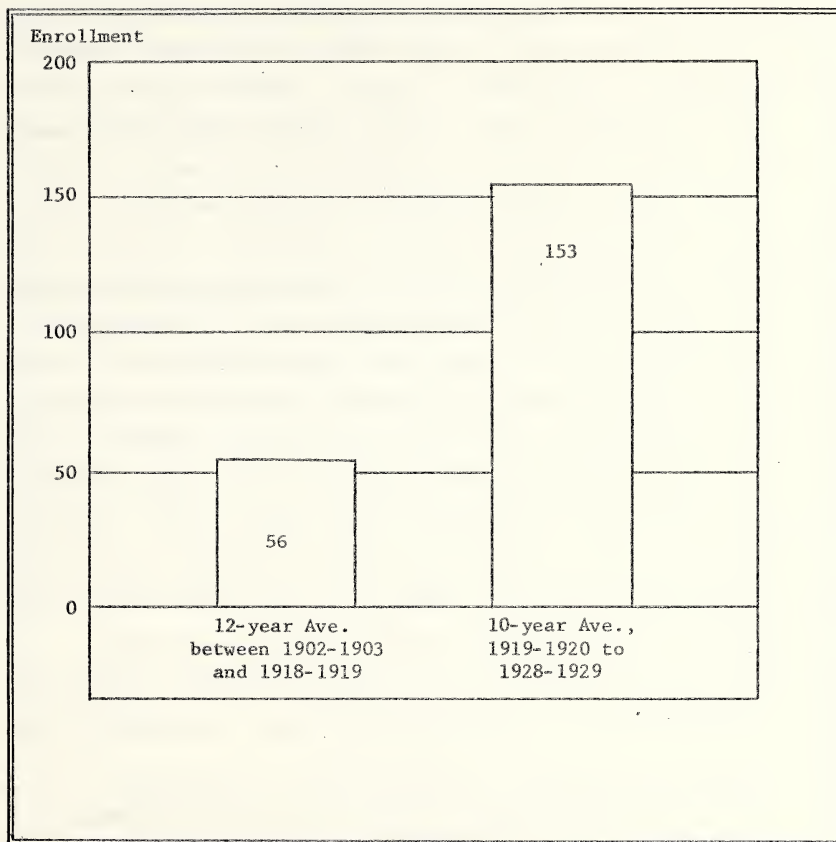


Chart 3. Average Enrollment of Joliet Junior College during the Experimental and Rapid-Growth Periods.

Source: Computed using data supplied in Table III.



1. The first part of the document is a title page. It contains the title of the document, the author's name, and the date of publication.

the school year 1902-1903. Considerable confusion exists as to the validity of this date and the literature includes numerous references to 1901-1902 as the beginning date for Joliet Junior College. Origin in 1902-1903 is doubtlessly based upon Superintendent Brown's own statement to this effect at the National Conference of Junior Colleges held in St. Louis on June 30 and July 1, 1920 (13:27). The earlier year, 1901-1902, undoubtedly has stemmed from the First Report of the Joliet Township High School, published in September 1903 (two years after the new township high school building had been completed), which primarily concerned the dedicatory program of the new building but which also included, among other course offerings, a listing of complete fifth- and sixth-year postgraduate courses (31:76). This, undoubtedly, suggested to some investigators that these extended high school programs were initiated during the school year 1901-1902, the year of the dedication.

The case for 1902-1903 as the initiation date for the junior college program at Joliet is further supported in an editorial in The School Review of October 1906:

Principal J. Stanley Brown, of the Joliet (Ill.) Township High School, reports with satisfaction the case of the first of the graduates from the six-year high school course, who has received the baccalaureate degree from college on the completion of two years of residence work. He says:

_____ graduated from our high school from the regular four-year course with an average standing of about 85; she afterward took two years' additional work, represented by our fifth and sixth

years, and for this work received credit without examination or condition on her entrance at _____ College, September, 1904. She graduated in June (1906) with a very creditable record in all her college work. . . . Miss _____ is the first of our students to complete our six-year high-school course and to graduate from college in two years (16:609).

If Miss _____ was graduated from her fourth year of college in 1906, she apparently started the first year in 1902 in the fifth year of the extended high school program and completed the second year, the sixth year of the extended program, in 1903-1904. Because she was in the first class to complete the sixth-year program in 1903-1904, it would appear unlikely that the 1901-1902 date is justified.

Undoubtedly this confusion further stems from a failure by some investigators to distinguish between isolated postgraduate work (either of high school or college level) prior to 1902 and the fifth- and sixth-year high school program which, from the documentation just provided, came into being in 1902.

The year 1902, then, is herein accepted as the real beginning date of a full two-year junior college program at Joliet. Further, Mr. Thomas Deam, who was associated with the junior college between 1925 and 1941, believes Superintendent Brown designated 1902 as the appropriate date for the reason that on December 3, 1902, the Board gave official sanction to the postgraduate program by agreeing to allow students to enter it tuition-free (34:430).

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RESEARCH INTERESTS
My research interests are in the area of quantum optics and quantum information. I am currently working on the development of quantum communication systems and the study of quantum entanglement. I have published several papers in this area and am currently working on a book.

EDUCATION
I received my B.S. degree in Physics from the University of California, Berkeley, in 1988. I then went to the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign where I received my M.S. degree in 1990 and my Ph.D. degree in 1993. I was a postdoctoral fellow at the University of Illinois from 1993 to 1995 and then at the University of Chicago from 1995 to 1997.

EMPLOYMENT
I have been an Assistant Professor of Physics at the University of Chicago since 1997. I was an Assistant Professor of Physics at the University of Illinois from 1993 to 1995 and then at the University of Chicago from 1995 to 1997.

AWARDS AND HONORS
I have received several awards and honors, including the National Science Foundation CAREER Award in 1994, the Packard Foundation Fellowship in 1995, and the Sloan Foundation Fellowship in 1996. I was also a member of the National Academy of Sciences from 1995 to 1997.

With the 1902-1903 origin date for Joliet Junior College reasonably documented, the analysis will proceed as to the development of this junior college.

It is clear from Table III that the period 1902-1903 to 1918-1919 was one of relatively slow, and yet steady, growth. Though enrollment data are lacking for five of the years, it is very probable that this extended high school (junior college) program had some students in enrollment every year after 1902-1903. Superintendent Brown himself once described the early progress as being slow but uninterrupted. "The development at Joliet was slow at first," he stated at the meeting of the National Conference of Junior Colleges held at St. Louis on June 30, 1920, "but it was continuous and did not stop for a moment" (13:27). Later, Dean was to characterize the major part of this period--the time from 1902 through 1914--as being one during which "the postgraduate department of the high school was establishing itself and building up traditions necessary to crystallize itself into a recognized unit" (15:430). Both of these statements are consistent with the view that the years 1902-1903 to 1918-1919 represented a true experimental period.

The second period, in contrast, was one of rapid expansion. Progress can be measured not only by the rising enrollment figures given in Table III, but also by other advances. The Joliet Township High School Bulletin for June 1928 makes it clear that, by the end of the second period, Joliet Junior College was a flourishing and well

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established institution (29). By this time, 1928, the following curricula were in effect: Literature and Arts, Teacher Training, Commerce and Business, Industrial Administration, and Engineering. While the prevailing philosophy was that the high schools should prepare students for "certain routine positions in American life" (29:2), it was recognized that the junior college had the responsibility of giving training in "the semiprofessions" and also of helping "to round out and complete the general education of those students who will attend senior college for specialization" (29:2). The June 1928 Bulletin proudly reported, too, that "students graduating from our Junior College receive hour for hour credit in colleges and universities and are treated just as advantageously as any other students from other collegiate institutions" (29:1).

With the documentation of the early origin and the growth patterns of the two periods briefly characterized, an attempt can be made to determine those influences which facilitated or hindered development during these two time spans. Attention is given first to the experimental period--the period representing the administration of J. Stanley Brown.

The Experimental Period, 1902 to 1919

This experimental period analysis has two purposes. One of these is to give a brief and yet reasonably complete historical picture of Joliet Junior College during the time span considered. The other, more primary,

The first part of the paper discusses the importance of the study of the history of the United States. It is argued that a knowledge of the past is essential for a full understanding of the present. The author then proceeds to discuss the various factors which have shaped the development of the United States, including the influence of the British, the Spanish, and the French. The paper concludes by emphasizing the need for a continued study of the history of the United States in order to better understand the challenges of the future.

The second part of the paper discusses the role of the United States in the world. It is argued that the United States has a special responsibility to lead the world in the pursuit of peace and justice. The author then discusses the various ways in which the United States can fulfill this responsibility, including through the use of diplomatic, economic, and military power. The paper concludes by emphasizing the need for a continued commitment to the principles of democracy and human rights.

The third part of the paper discusses the future of the United States. It is argued that the United States has a bright future ahead of it, provided that it continues to uphold the principles of democracy and human rights. The author then discusses the various challenges that the United States will face in the future, including the threat of terrorism, the challenge of global climate change, and the need for a more equitable distribution of resources. The paper concludes by emphasizing the need for a continued commitment to the principles of democracy and human rights.

The fourth part of the paper discusses the role of the individual in the history of the United States. It is argued that the actions of individuals have played a crucial role in shaping the course of the nation's history. The author then discusses the various ways in which individuals can contribute to the betterment of the United States, including through the exercise of their rights and responsibilities as citizens. The paper concludes by emphasizing the need for a continued commitment to the principles of democracy and human rights.

objective is to answer several key questions regarding evolutionary influences. These questions are as follows:

- (1) What were some of the influences which affected the initiation of Joliet Junior College?
- (2) What were some of the major forces which helped Joliet Junior College, once started to survive and to continue development, albeit slowly throughout the experimental period?
- (3) What were some of the major influences which would help to explain the slowness of the school's development, as measured by the previously presented enrollment figures, during this time period, as contrasted with the subsequent rapid growth stage?

To answer these questions, influences of both an internal and an external nature, positive and negative, are studied in two parts below. As influences are identified and interpreted, factual material is included to fulfill the secondary goal of providing a brief descriptive history of Joliet Junior College from its earliest beginnings to 1919.

Major Internal Influences

Positive Influences. A number of major internal influences of a positive nature help to answer the first two questions set forth above. On the basis of a careful review of available primary materials,² the major internal

²The most important of these include: The First Report of the Joliet Township High School, Minutes of the Board of Education, original letter from F. W. Kelsey and

the first of these is the fact that the first of the two
series of observations is not a true random sample of the
population.

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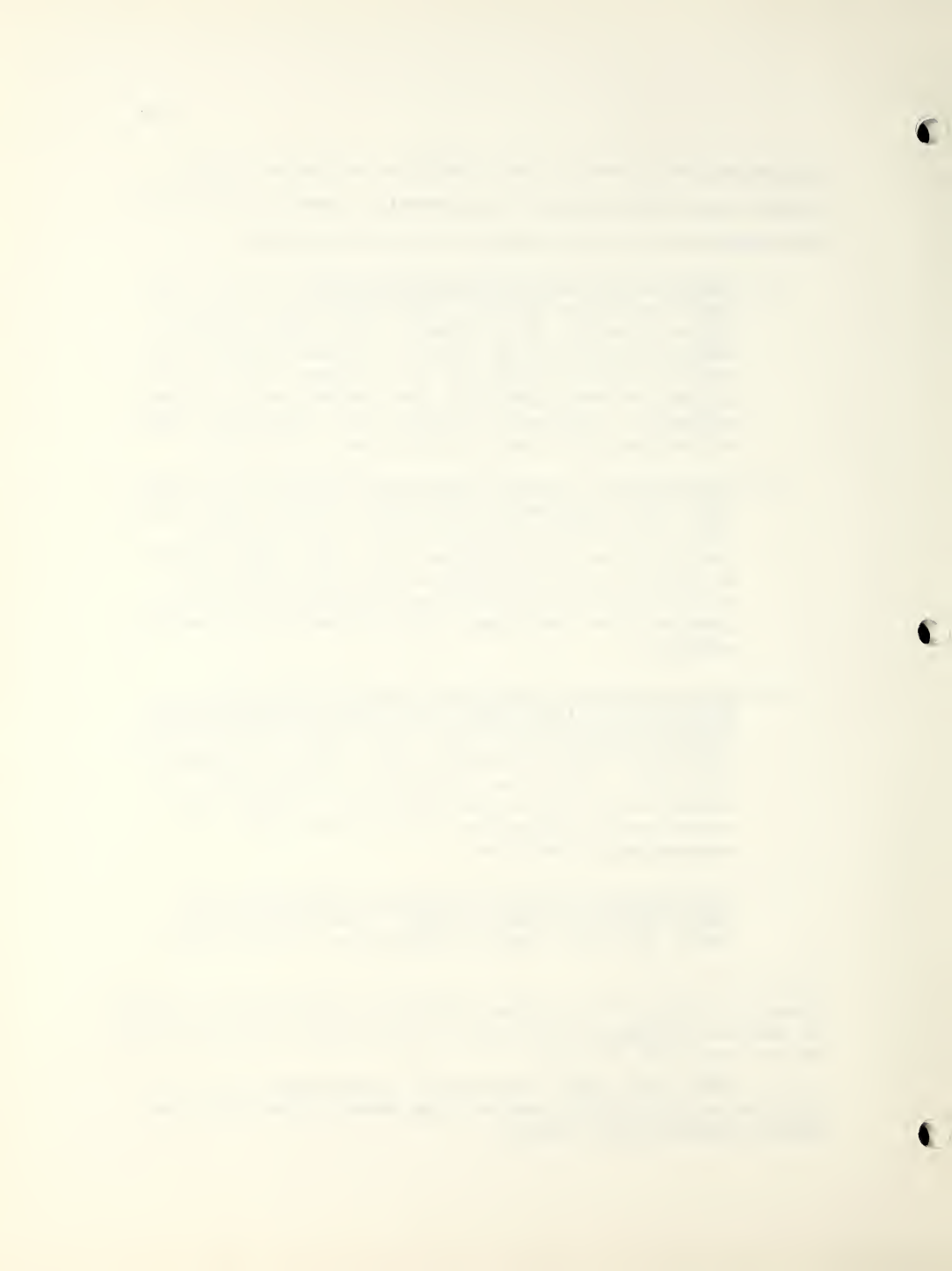
The fifteenth of these is the fact that the first of the two
series of observations is not a true random sample of the
population.

influences which led to the initiation of Joliet Junior College and which enabled it to develop steadily throughout the experimental period appear to have been these:

- (1) Strong Local Educational Leadership--the fact that both the Joliet (City)³ High School and the later Joliet Township High School, were under the professional control of a man, J. Stanley Brown, who was not only a visionary local leader, but who was an active participant in the contemporary national movement, discussed in Chapter II, which was aimed at reorganizing American secondary education;
- (2) An Especially Strong High School Program--the fact that, for the times, both Joliet (City) High School and Joliet Township High School were superior institutions with programs that gave some students an education of an exceptionally high quality, along with the fact that opportunities for doing postgraduate work were early offered in these two schools;
- (3) The Availability of Ample Physical Space and Superior Facilities for a Two-year Program beyond the High School--the fact that, after construction of the new Joliet Township High School building in 1900-1901, there was available a large amount of unused space which made inclusion of fifth- and sixth-year programs both conveniently and economically possible;
- (4) Progressive and Enlightened Lay Leadership, at Least during the Early Years--the fact that at least the first Board of Education of the Joliet

Joseph H. Drake, both of the University of Michigan, as well as numerous Bulletins published by the Joliet Township High School from 1921 to 1931.

³The term City, enclosed in parentheses, is included to distinguish Joliet High School from the later Joliet Township High School.



Township High School included men who had a strong and sincere appreciation of the value of education and who, for the time, had quite progressive notions about what the schools should do for the public.

To elaborate upon the first point made, there is ample evidence to suggest that J. Stanley Brown was a potent influence, not only in getting Joliet Junior College started initially, but also in nurturing its survival and steady progress through the experimental years. That he was a capable and visionary educational leader (though, as is to be noted later, a somewhat cautious reformer) seems quite clear from the record. A thorough understanding of the initiation and early development of Joliet Junior College demands some knowledge about his educational background.

It is certainly important to note that before J. Stanley Brown came to Joliet in 1893, he had prior experience in the field of higher education. Born near Cumberland, Ohio, on September 13, 1863, Brown became a village school teacher at the age of seventeen but soon thereafter resolved to continue his own education. He then entered Dennison University at Granville, Ohio, and after six years of study, was graduated in 1889 with the A.B. degree.⁴ Having distinguished himself as a student, he was elected, even prior to his graduation, to the chair

⁴The title of "Doctor" is often affixed to Brown's name especially in later years at Joliet. One reference (1) indicates the degree was an L.L.D., an honorary degree.

of Latin and Greek at Blandville College in Kentucky. Although he held this chair for only one year, he afterwards immediately accepted and held for three years a similar position at a college in Arlington, Kentucky. From there he went to the Pacific Northwest to become the President of the State Normal School at The Dalles, Oregon. Then, in 1893, he left this school to become the principal of the Joliet (City) High School (20:601-602).

Brown's prior experience in higher education was doubtlessly very important from the standpoint of the later initiation of Joliet Junior College. It is hardly to be doubted that a scholar of his calibre would not have been well-aware at least of national discussions favoring reform of secondary education. Certainly, too, it can be documented that Brown, shortly after he came to Joliet, became actively interested in President Harper's reform movement at the new University of Chicago which had opened just a year earlier. Within six years after Brown had assumed the principalship, Joliet (City) High School became associated with the University of Chicago through its "cooperation" program. The Minutes of the Board of Affiliation for January 21, 1899, state that "The Joliet High School having been visited by Mr. Fellows and Mr. Mead, was accepted [as a cooperating school]" (7). Moreover, as has been shown in Chapter II, Brown headed one of the three committees (the Committee on the Secondary Schools) which President Harper officially formed in 1902 to study (report reactions to) his four-point "proposition." It will be



recalled that this "proposition" included the following points:

- (1) To connect the work of the eighth grade of the elementary school with that of the secondary school.
- (2) To extend the work of the secondary school to include the first two years of college work.
- (3) To reduce the work of the seven years thus grouped to six years.
- (4) To make it possible for the best class of students to do the work in five years (43:1).

In Chapter II it was pointed out that one of the macro influences that fostered the development of junior colleges was university support of the idea of high school elongation. In view of Brown's known direct participation in President Harper's reorganization studies, it certainly seems safe to say that this general influence recognized by McDowell was an especially potent one in the case of Joliet Junior College.

But even without any direct association with the University of Chicago, Brown would probably have been an important influence in the way of high school elongation. Certainly he can be regarded as having been most important in that, along with a small cadre of superior teachers, he early helped to build a superior high school program along with provisions for postgraduate work such as could become a sound base for the later initiation of a distinct two-year junior college program.

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2. The Effect of the Diet on the Blood Sugar in Diabetes Mellitus
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A genealogical description of Brown published in 1900 states that "Wherever he [Brown] has been located, there has been a noticeable increase in students" (20:602). From Table IV, which shows the Joliet (City) High School and later Joliet Township High School enrollment rising from 208 in 1893-1894 to 600 in 1901-1902--an enrollment "which made the school the largest of its kind in the nation" (31:30) at the beginning of the century--it would seem that the statement has a strong factual basis. But even more important than the increase in enrollment was the gain in the quality of instruction. Along with growth under J. Stanley Brown, there was also a great deal of educational quality.

The high quality of the regular high school instruction can be substantiated by a number of letters and other documents. One of the earliest bits of evidence attesting to the superior nature of some of the Joliet (City) High School instruction is a letter from F. W. Kelsey of the University of Michigan to J. Stanley Brown. Dated June 2, 1896, the letter was written in reply to one of Brown's letters of the previous month and contains this statement:

I am much pleased to learn that you have taken your students over more than the required preparatory work. If you will kindly give to those who come to the University of Michigan a certificate to the effect that the extra work has been well done, I will see that advanced credit is given for it. . . . (36).

It seems to be abundantly clear that, within a very short time after he came to Joliet, Brown began

1. The first part of the document is a letter from the President of the United States to the Congress, dated January 3, 1862. It is a very important document, as it contains the President's message to Congress for the first time since the beginning of the year.

2. The second part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Treasury, dated January 10, 1862. It contains a detailed account of the financial condition of the United States at that time.

3. The third part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Interior, dated January 15, 1862. It contains a detailed account of the land and mineral resources of the United States.

4. The fourth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Navy, dated January 20, 1862. It contains a detailed account of the naval forces of the United States.

5. The fifth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the War, dated January 25, 1862. It contains a detailed account of the military forces of the United States.

6. The sixth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the State, dated January 30, 1862. It contains a detailed account of the foreign relations of the United States.

7. The seventh part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Agriculture, dated February 5, 1862. It contains a detailed account of the agricultural resources of the United States.

8. The eighth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Commerce, dated February 10, 1862. It contains a detailed account of the commercial resources of the United States.

T A B L E IV

ENROLLMENT OF JOLIET (CITY) HIGH SCHOOL, 1893-1898,
AND JOLIET TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL, 1899-1902

School and Years	Number Enrolled	Data Not Available
<u>Joliet (City) High School</u>		
1893-1894	208	
1894-1895	275	
1895-1896	311	
1896-1897	348	
1897-1898	399	
1898-1899	443	
<u>Joliet Township High School^A</u>		
1899-1900	482	
1900-1901		*
1901-1902	600	

^AClasses for Joliet Township High School were conducted in the Joliet (City) High School building through the 1900-1901 school year while the new township high school building was being constructed.

SOURCE: First Report of the Joliet Township High School,
September, 1903, p. 30.

efforts to upgrade the high school program to the end that some students might receive advanced standing when they entered institutions of higher learning. Another bit of evidence to document this hypothesis is a letter (37) to Brown written on May 24, 1898, by J. H. Drake of the University of Michigan:

My Dear Mr. Brown:

I have been intending for some time to write you personally in regard to your school, which I have already reported favorably upon to the University, but the work piled up so during my absence that I am just getting to my correspondence once more.

The school as a whole made a favorable impression on both Dr. Reed and myself, tho' we both felt you were carrying a heavy handicap in having to work in such an unsuitable building [the old City High School building]. I hope the promise of a new--entirely new--building may become an actuality in the near future.

The work in Latin was good. I think I made to you personally the only criticism that might be justly passed upon it; namely, that more attention might be given to the reading of Latin as Latin. I may repeat my caution that this does not mean that you are to give up the many good things you have now: the excellent translations into good English, the accurate distinction in meanings of words, the thorough drill in syntax of the oral prose work, and the good work in mythology and geography. The reading of Latin may, however, be made an assistance in gaining all these excellencies. It certainly should not exclude them. You spoke to me of some of your good pupils being able to do a little more than the University requirement. I think you would do well to encourage this. Of course, it must be done cautiously, i.e., the amount

should not be increased at the expense of the quality. But the majority of our better schools are doing a little more than is required for entrance and the result is good. The University is glad to give some advanced credit for work done in this way. It encourages the student and reduces the amount of the required work to be done in the college courses, so that the student has more time for the heavy seminary courses of the senior year.

I was pleased with the work done in history and in English. Your substantial courses in American history and civics are of the greatest value in the training of our future citizens and the University is joining hands with the high schools in the endeavor to make these courses equivalent in value of any in the curriculum.

I remember with pleasure my visit with you. I hope we may renew our acquaintanceship at some time in the future.

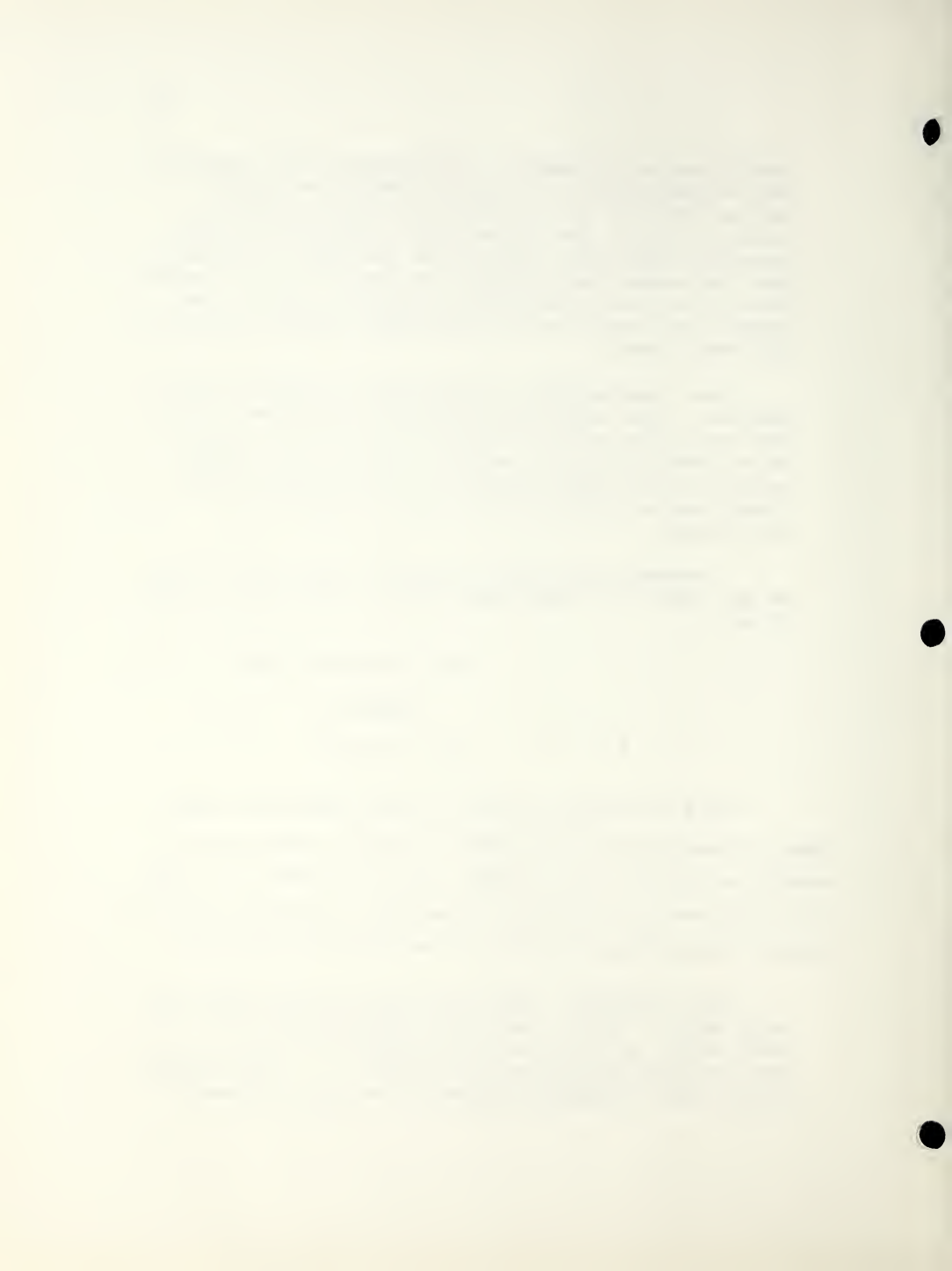
Most cordially yours,

(Signed)

Jos. H. Drake

The high school upgrading work, apparently undertaken independently of any direct influence from the University of Chicago, was probably started in 1894. In 1901, in a talk made at initiation ceremonies to dedicate the new Township High School building, Brown made this statement:

Since September, 1894, some continuous effort has been made to inspire pupils to continue their work in some higher institutions after graduating here. . . . Our own great University of Illinois . . . [now--1901] admits our recommended graduates into the sophomore



class without conditions and enables them to complete a four years' course in three years (31:30).

In Chapter II, it was noted that one the macro internal negative forces tending to retard junior college development was the poor quality of much secondary education itself at the turn of the century. Apparently this factor did not prevail at Joliet. The contrary situation--that is, the existence of a strong high school program and the demonstrated ability of the school to offer high-quality instruction acceptable at higher institutions--can well be regarded as a most important internal influence tending toward the initiation and development of a junior college.

Of perhaps even greater direct importance, however, was the postgraduate work which came to be part of the high school's offering after Brown came to Joliet. The well-known fact that some students were taking postgraduate work some years before the Joliet Township High School offered complete fifth- and sixth-year programs has been interpreted by at least one writer, a former superintendent of Joliet Township High School, Roosevelt Basler, to mean that, for all practical purposes, junior college courses, if not a formalized two-year program, were in existence well before the generally accepted beginning date of 1902. The point that Basler would make is that the postgraduate work offered after 1902 was very little different from that which had previously been offered in the old Joliet (City) High School before the new building was built and

1. The first part of the report deals with the general situation of the country and the position of the various groups of the population.

2. The second part of the report deals with the economic situation of the country and the position of the various groups of the population.

3. The third part of the report deals with the social situation of the country and the position of the various groups of the population.

4. The fourth part of the report deals with the cultural situation of the country and the position of the various groups of the population.

5. The fifth part of the report deals with the political situation of the country and the position of the various groups of the population.

occupied. Joliet Junior College, Basler states, was in no way "established"; rather, it slowly evolved out of the early postgraduate courses. To quote Basler directly:

Such expressions as "established," "formed," and "came into existence" convey a wholly erroneous impression concerning the conditions at Joliet. . . . The writings of recognized authorities in this field give the impression that after due deliberation the school authorities decided to establish a junior college at Joliet in the year 1902. It is clear that no such well-defined intention existed in 1902 and just as clear that the "post-graduate" work carried on in that year differed very little from that offered by the school in the years immediately preceding and immediately following it. The early beginnings of the Joliet Junior College were characterized by a slow, gradual, and evolutionary growth. In truth the college evolved-- it was not "established," "formed," or begun at any particular date (5:20).

Basler's contention that the early postgraduate courses were a significant antecedent of Joliet Junior College can be accepted, but it is very probable that there was in actual fact a real difference between the first postgraduate classes and the formal fifth- and sixth-year programs which were offered in the new Township High School building the second year it was in use. There is no evidence whatsoever that the early postgraduate classes covered two full years as would be necessary to establish the existence of a junior college in the definitional meaning of the term. Moreover, it is not always clear that the postgraduate work taken during the early years was of a high school or of a college level.

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO
DEPARTMENT OF CHEMISTRY
530 SOUTH EAST ASIAN AVENUE
CHICAGO, ILLINOIS 60607

TO THE EDITOR:
I am writing to you to inform you of the results of the experiments conducted by me and my colleagues in the Department of Chemistry at the University of Chicago. The experiments were conducted in the laboratory of Professor [Name] and were designed to investigate the properties of [Subject]. The results of the experiments are as follows:

Experiment No.	Temperature (°C)	Pressure (atm)	Yield (%)
1	25	1.0	85
2	35	1.0	88
3	45	1.0	90
4	55	1.0	92
5	65	1.0	95
6	75	1.0	98
7	85	1.0	100
8	95	1.0	100
9	105	1.0	100
10	115	1.0	100

The results of the experiments show that the yield of the product increases with increasing temperature and pressure. The yield reaches a maximum of 100% at 85°C and 1.0 atm. The results of the experiments are in good agreement with the theoretical predictions. The experiments were conducted in the laboratory of Professor [Name] and were designed to investigate the properties of [Subject]. The results of the experiments are as follows:

Experiment No.	Temperature (°C)	Pressure (atm)	Yield (%)
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4	55	1.0	92
5	65	1.0	95
6	75	1.0	98
7	85	1.0	100
8	95	1.0	100
9	105	1.0	100
10	115	1.0	100

Nevertheless, the postgraduate classes which antedated the occupation of the Joliet Township High School building must be deemed a significant influence. Just when they were started cannot be determined precisely from the records but the previously cited quotation from Brown would suggest that they may have been offered as early as 1894. What definitely is known is that by 1902--or before the formal offering of complete fifth- and sixth-year programs--some students were receiving college credit for postgraduate courses in trigonometry, advanced physics, chemistry, and algebra courses from some institutions of higher learning (30:3,7).

Unfortunately, just as it is impossible to pinpoint the date when postgraduate classes were first started, so it is impossible to attribute their initiation to any one individual. Presumably, Brown was the "prime mover," but it is entirely possible that the original inspiration may have come from C. E. Spicer who came to Joliet in 1891 and who was an assistant to Brown after the Joliet Township High School was formed. This hypothesis is attractive in view of the fact that Spicer was head of the science department and also in view of the fact that the first postgraduate classes were in such fields as physics, chemistry, and surveying. A letter written to Dr. L. W. Smith on October 18, 1932, contains this statement:

These three subjects (physics, chemistry, and surveying) formed the nucleus from which the junior college grew. They were the ones that could be made

1. The first part of the report deals with the general situation of the company and the results of the work done during the year. It also contains a summary of the financial statements and a comparison of the results with the previous year.

2. The second part of the report deals with the specific results of the work done during the year. It contains a detailed analysis of the various projects and a comparison of the results with the previous year.

3. The third part of the report deals with the future prospects of the company. It contains a forecast of the results for the next year and a discussion of the various factors that may affect the company's performance.

4. The fourth part of the report deals with the company's financial position. It contains a detailed analysis of the company's assets and liabilities and a comparison of the results with the previous year.

5. The fifth part of the report deals with the company's management and the results of the work done during the year. It contains a detailed analysis of the various projects and a comparison of the results with the previous year.

6. The sixth part of the report deals with the company's future prospects. It contains a forecast of the results for the next year and a discussion of the various factors that may affect the company's performance.

7. The seventh part of the report deals with the company's financial position. It contains a detailed analysis of the company's assets and liabilities and a comparison of the results with the previous year.

8. The eighth part of the report deals with the company's management and the results of the work done during the year. It contains a detailed analysis of the various projects and a comparison of the results with the previous year.

9. The ninth part of the report deals with the company's future prospects. It contains a forecast of the results for the next year and a discussion of the various factors that may affect the company's performance.

immediately remunerative to the students, and each of them abundantly justified itself on this basis. Of the three, chemistry was the one that furnished the largest amount of employment (5:25).

Even if Spicer may not have initiated the idea of offering postgraduate classes, he must be accounted along with Brown as an important early influence. According to Miss Elizabeth Barns, who joined the junior college faculty in 1905 and who is still living, Spicer was a very capable person who, while being quite different from Brown, worked well with him. A statement reproduced from an interview tape is as follows:

Of all the superintendents I worked under . . . Dr. Brown had the widest vision on educational matters. He was not afraid of trying things. He had a vision of the future. With C. E. Spicer, they made a perfect team. Mr. Spicer was a person who had a perfect genius for detail and he would take Dr. Brown's vision and work it into a program. The two of them worked together very well. They didn't always agree but they had an appreciation of each other.

Although a superior high school program complete with postgraduate classes was an important initiating influence, a full two-year junior college program would hardly have originated without the third major force previously noted--the availability of ample physical space. Prior to 1901, as the letter from Drake earlier quoted would suggest, Brown was definitely handicapped in his attempt to upgrade the high school and postgraduate programs by having to work in a cramped, inadequate building. With the

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO
DIVISION OF THE PHYSICAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF CHEMISTRY

REPORT OF THE
COMMISSION ON THE
STRUCTURE OF THE
ATOMIC NUCLEUS
AND THE
PROPERTIES OF
THE ELEMENTS

BY
J. J. AUSTIN
AND
J. H. DUNN
WITH
CONTRIBUTIONS BY
J. J. AUSTIN
AND
J. H. DUNN

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS
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completion in 1901 of a new township high school building, however, the space problem was more than solved. The new building, considered to be one of the finest in the nation, was planned to accommodate 1,400 students in its 87 rooms (14:417). Since enrollment at the time was only 600, there was plenty of room for programs other than the regular ones.

Although instruction in this new building began with the school year 1901-1902, it was not until the following year, 1902-1903,⁵ that full fifth- and sixth-year postgraduate courses were offered. At least two possible explanations may be offered to account for this fact. One hypothesis is that Brown was simply delayed in instituting the program--that is, in expanding the old postgraduate curriculum--because of a multitude of other problems attendant upon getting regular classes started in new surroundings. The other possibility is that the idea of offering complete fifth- and sixth-year programs simply had not occurred to Brown by this time.

The last hypothesis seems most tenable. The inspiration for the full two years of elongation may well have come as a direct result of Brown's active participation on a committee to study President Harper's four-point reorganization proposition--a participation which, as has been noted, began during the Fall of 1902. This direct

⁵This date of origin of the junior college program at Joliet is considered valid based upon the documentation previously provided.

The first part of the report deals with the general situation of the country. It is a very interesting and informative study of the country's development. The author has done a great deal of research and has gathered a wealth of material. The report is well written and is a valuable contribution to the study of the country's development.

The second part of the report deals with the economic situation of the country. It is a very interesting and informative study of the country's economic development. The author has done a great deal of research and has gathered a wealth of material. The report is well written and is a valuable contribution to the study of the country's economic development.

The third part of the report deals with the social situation of the country. It is a very interesting and informative study of the country's social development. The author has done a great deal of research and has gathered a wealth of material. The report is well written and is a valuable contribution to the study of the country's social development.

The fourth part of the report deals with the political situation of the country. It is a very interesting and informative study of the country's political development. The author has done a great deal of research and has gathered a wealth of material. The report is well written and is a valuable contribution to the study of the country's political development.

The fifth part of the report deals with the cultural situation of the country. It is a very interesting and informative study of the country's cultural development. The author has done a great deal of research and has gathered a wealth of material. The report is well written and is a valuable contribution to the study of the country's cultural development.

The sixth part of the report deals with the environmental situation of the country. It is a very interesting and informative study of the country's environmental development. The author has done a great deal of research and has gathered a wealth of material. The report is well written and is a valuable contribution to the study of the country's environmental development.

The seventh part of the report deals with the future of the country. It is a very interesting and informative study of the country's future development. The author has done a great deal of research and has gathered a wealth of material. The report is well written and is a valuable contribution to the study of the country's future development.

influence may be inferred from Brown's own 1920 statement to the effect that the junior college was started in 1902 and from his additional observation that "Joliet takes no particular credit for it, but concedes it to the man of vision, Dr. William Rainey Harper" (13:27). Moreover, there is a striking similarity between the Harper proposition and the curricula of Joliet Township High School for the year 1902-1903. In addition to the regular four-year Classical, Latin-Scientific, Combination English, Commercial, and Modern Language courses, there was a three-year course as well as a five- and a six-year course. In other words, not only was the regular program elongated by two years, but, in conformity with Point 4 of the Harper Proposition, a three-year program was instituted for the benefit of "the stronger students"^e (31:77).

One of the surprising things is that so little fanfare announced the expansion of the old postgraduate classes into full five- and six-year programs. Doubtlessly Brown himself realized the significance of his innovation, but he seems, nevertheless, to have introduced it both to the Board and to the public in a most incidental way. The Board Minutes reveal not the slightest bit of active promotion of the idea

^eHere it should be noted that under the dual system then under effect, that is, with the city elementary schools under a different Board and Administration, Brown had no power to effect the elementary school changes called for by the Proposition, though it is clear from a 1904 report he made that he definitely approved of limiting the elementary school to six years (11:567).

on the part of Brown and the explanation given in the First Report is quite briefly and matter-of-factly stated as follows: "The growing demand for a greater and more extended opportunity to do high school work has led to the formation of the five-year and six-year courses" (31:78).

A fortunate combination of two events--the construction of an especially roomy new high school building and the almost simultaneous selection of Brown to serve on President Harper's Commission of Twenty-one--seems to be the real explanation for the initiation of the junior college as something distinctly different from the antecedent postgraduate work. By this interpretation, which contradicts Basler's evolutionary hypothesis, the junior college at Joliet was in truth "established" or "formed" at one stroke. Given Brown's participation on the Harper Commission, it is quite possible that he would have initiated or attempted to initiate the program at this time even had there been no previous postgraduate work.

Also important from the standpoint of the college's initiation and subsequent steady progress, however, was the progressive and enlightened lay leadership that Brown enjoyed during the early years. Elected in 1899 after the Township High School District had been formed, the Board included Judge A. O. Marshall, president; Truman A. Mason, secretary; and members D. F. Higgins, Henry Leach, and Henry Banzet. That these community leaders had progressive notions about education is indicated by the earlier noted fact that they voted on December 3, 1902, to permit



students to take postgraduate work tuition-free. This positive vote would seem to be tantamount to an endorsement of the five- and six-year programs themselves. It would indicate that the board members, in judging postgraduate education to be a legitimate function of the tax-supported high school, were quite modern and progressive in their thinking.⁷ After all, the high school in Joliet itself had been graduating students only since 1874 (31:31).

This decision, incidentally, represents one of the very few judgments which the Board rendered about the postgraduate school during the experimental period. At Board meetings, Brown himself rarely brought up the subject of the fifth- and sixth-year programs though occasionally he mentioned, in an incidental way, the number of students enrolled. Although Brown definitely promoted the junior college idea before out-of-town audiences, he kept singularly quiet about the Joliet Junior College while he was in his home town. He seemed quite content to let the program evolve slowly, but surely, unaided (or unhindered) by any fanfare or active promotion.

It may well be that Brown was wise during those early years to let the junior college sell itself on its own merits. According to Deam, Brown definitely feared that "too much said about 'junior college' would have

⁷The Board showed its progressiveness, too, in voting to permit the new building to be used as a County Normal School, and, later, in establishing an evening school for both pre-adults and adults.

affected the development of the institution unfavorably" (15:430).

An editorial in the October 1906 School Review reinforces this point:

A number of private secondary schools are offering courses covering the first two years of college study (the junior college). The public high schools are likely to encounter considerable difficulty in doing this because of the increased cost involved for the necessary equipment and teaching staff. . . . Nevertheless, the movement toward the secondary school affording, in addition to the regular four-year course, two additional years of "preparation for life," and articulating directly with the university (in distinction from the college), is slowly but steadily progressing. It is obviously not to be desired as a general modification of the American high school. Probably an attempt to extend the high school in this way forcibly will always be defeated. Separate communities, and especially industrial communities, are likely, however, to demand it (16:609).

If in fact there was good reason for this fear,⁸ then Brown's quiet, evolutionary tactics may have been one

⁸This fear may have stemmed, partially at least, from Brown's participation on the Harper Commission of Twenty-one. It will be recalled from Chapter II that, when the report of the committee studying the Harper Proposition from the viewpoint of the colleges made its report in 1904, some opposition to the high school extension idea developed. One member of the committee, Professor W. R. Payne of the University of Michigan, stated that high school elongation would increase considerably the cost of secondary education. He added that "I do not believe there is a board of education in Michigan that would incur such a risk. It is

THE [illegible] OF THE [illegible] [illegible]

THE [illegible] OF THE [illegible] [illegible]

THE [illegible] OF THE [illegible] [illegible]

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of the prime reasons why the institution managed to survive and to make steady progress in a noncontroversial community climate.

There is at least one indication of the possible development of opposition to the junior college. Between 1913 and 1917, despite the original overbuilding of the high school, a critical shortage of space developed. In view of this shortage, a Board member suggested on April 21, 1915, that admission be denied to the postgraduate school until the sale of bonds, which had been authorized by a 1913 referendum, could be effected to finance an addition to the high school (34). The sale of the bonds, however, was shortly afterward made and the addition, which later came to be known as "the Junior College Wing," was completed in 1917. Though the outcome was thus favorable for the junior college, the facts suggest that, to some later Board members at least, the postgraduate classes were a luxury which might be the first to go during necessary periods of austerity or retrenchment.

Negative Influences. With one of the purposes of the analysis being that of explaining not only Joliet Junior College's initiation and survival but also its slowness of growth during the experimental stage, it is relevant to consider a number of negative internal influences which prevailed during the experimental period.

certain that there is no high school in the state that has ventured to extend its course as proposed in the majority report" (39:25).

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The best evidence available suggests that the major ones were these:

- (1) Lack of active promotion of the junior college idea at the local level.
- (2) Operation of the junior college as a highly selective institution meeting the needs of only a small part of the school age population.
- (3) Development of the junior college as simply a part of the Joliet Township High School with no separation of facilities, staff, or financial accounting.
- (4) Development, near the end of the experimental period, of a degree of conflict between Brown and the Board.

Although, as has been noted, Brown's cautious tactics may have been one of the main reasons Joliet Junior College survived, these same approaches may also be one of the principal explanations for the school's slow growth during the experimental period. At least one contemporary observer has suggested so. That observer was I. D. Yaggy, who was chairman of a committee for the postgraduate school between 1912 and 1928 and later Dean of the junior college. According to Fretwell, Yaggy wrote him on July 5, 1952, stating that Brown's fear of publicity and possible adverse taxpayer reaction was one of the key reasons for the school's slow growth during the early years (19:15).

It would certainly seem that, from the standpoint of gaining popular approval and stimulating enrollment, there would have been a semantical advantage to using the term

1. The first part of the document is a letter from the President of the United States to the Congress, dated January 3, 1862. It is a very important document, as it contains the President's views on the state of the Union and the progress of the war.

2. The second part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the War Department, dated January 10, 1862. It contains a detailed account of the military operations of the Army during the year 1861, and a statement of the resources of the Army for the year 1862.

3. The third part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Navy Department, dated January 10, 1862. It contains a detailed account of the operations of the Navy during the year 1861, and a statement of the resources of the Navy for the year 1862.

4. The fourth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Department of the Interior, dated January 10, 1862. It contains a detailed account of the operations of the Department during the year 1861, and a statement of the resources of the Department for the year 1862.

5. The fifth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Department of the Treasury, dated January 10, 1862. It contains a detailed account of the operations of the Department during the year 1861, and a statement of the resources of the Department for the year 1862.

6. The sixth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Department of the Army, dated January 10, 1862. It contains a detailed account of the operations of the Department during the year 1861, and a statement of the resources of the Department for the year 1862.

junior college instead of postgraduate school. Yet Brown carefully refrained from using this term in Joliet until near the very end of the experimental period.

Here it should be noted, though, that both Basler and his source (5) err, or at least mislead, when they suggest that it was not until Dr. Smith had taken over the superintendency that the name of Joliet Junior College was "boldly assumed." In the Minutes the institution is referred to as a junior college as early as September 1916, and at least by June 3, 1918 (33), Brown was freely using the term in his communication with the Advisory Committees which had been started in 1913. Statements from Brown's June 3, 1918, letter which reflect his own "boldness" are as follows:

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4. Only students complying with the admissions requirements of the State University of Illinois may be assigned to the Junior College classes.
 5. Junior College students shall be limited to sixteen (16) hours of work. Unanimous consent of the Commission shall be necessary to modify this requirement.
 6. All Junior College work shall hereafter be organized more distinctly on a college rather than a high school basis.
 7. English shall be required of all Junior College students during their first year.
 8. All Junior College students looking to teaching are required to meet, in their first year's work,

the conditions published by the State Certificating Board in order that they may be eligible for certification without examination (33).

Such statements would suggest that by this time Brown felt that the junior college had successfully survived the experimental period, and that, therefore, it could be openly and frankly described for what it really was. Years earlier, in 1901, he had written that "almost every institution of learning which has secured any prominence in its own field has had a struggling and somewhat flickering existence in some period of its history" (31:28). To avoid the risk of jeopardizing the school's very survival, he had nurtured it quietly and cautiously well aware that it might flicker out of existence at any time. Now, however, with the school recently having been accredited by the North Central Association and at the same time approved by the State Examining Board for teacher certification purposes (see discussion under External Influences), he apparently felt that its future was secure. The big question--one which, unfortunately, it is impossible to answer--is whether Brown's strict semantical caution had actually been necessary during all those preceding sixteen years.⁹

⁹In a personal interview, Miss Elizabeth Barns, questioned about the non-usage of the term junior college, stated, "I think they were concerned about the legality of using high school funds for the junior college. Nobody objected to the use of the funds, however" (40).

CONSTITUTIONAL HISTORY

The Constitution of the United States is a document of great importance. It is the foundation of our government and the source of our rights. The Constitution is a living document that has been interpreted and amended over time. The framers of the Constitution were men of great wisdom and courage. They created a government that has stood the test of time. The Constitution is a source of pride for all Americans. It is a document that we should all be proud to call our own.

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As Yaggy has suggested, this caution may well have been one of the principal influences related to the institution's slowness of growth.

To turn to the second influence earlier noted, Brown seems to have had a somewhat narrow elitist conception of the junior college and, possibly, this conception was another factor helping to explain the slow development. It is manifestly unfair, of course, to charge that Brown lacked the modern view regarding the role of the junior college in the community. Still, it would seem relevant to note that, throughout the experimental period and even beyond, Joliet Junior College, or the postgraduate school, whichever term is preferred, was a highly selective institution. As Tables V, VI, and VII clearly suggest, it served only a small portion of Joliet students from middle-class families with professional ambitions. Perhaps this is one of the main reasons why Brown was, according to Yaggy, "very much afraid that taxpayers might object to using high school funds for college work. . . ." (9:19.)

Although the earliest postgraduate classes were, according to Spicer, vocationally oriented and terminal in nature, the two-year postgraduate program soon afterwards became an advantage for those relatively few students who intended to continue their education at an institution of higher learning. This emphasis is clearly discernible from the offerings of the five-year and the six-year programs instituted in 1902-1903.

the first of these is the fact that the system is not a simple one, and that the results are not always the same. The second is that the system is not a simple one, and that the results are not always the same.

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T A B L E V

POSTGRADUATE ENROLLMENT IN RELATION TO TOTAL
SCHOOL-AGE POPULATION OF JOLIET TOWNSHIP,
BY SELECTED YEARS, 1902-1903
TO 1917-1918

School Years	Persons Aged 6 to 21 Years ^A	Postgraduate Enrollment ^B	Postgraduate Percent
1902-1903	12,297	22	0.18
1904-1905	12,093	28	0.23
1906-1907	11,984	24	0.20
1907-1908	12,094	32	0.26
1908-1909	11,782	54	0.45
1910-1911	12,916	40	0.30
1911-1912	12,406	52	0.42
1912-1913	13,243	76	0.57
1914-1915	14,140	75	0.53
1916-1917	14,770	75	0.51
1917-1918	14,280	108	0.76

SOURCES: ^A Annual Report of the Condition of Common Schools in the County of Will, State of Illinois.

^B Minutes of the Board of Education, Joliet Township High School.

T A B L E V I
 OCCUPATIONAL STATUS OF THE FATHERS OF A SAMPLE OF
 STUDENTS IN JOLIET JUNIOR COLLEGE
 MAY, 1923

Occupational Class	Number of Fathers	Percent of Fathers
1. Proprietors	6	9.0
2. Professional Service	9	13.4
3. Managerial Service	11	16.4
4. Commercial Service	7	10.4
5. Clerical Service	6	9.0
6. Agricultural Service	9	13.4
7. Artisan--Proprietors	2	3.0
8. Building and Related Trades	1	1.5
9. Machine and Related Trades	7	10.4
10. Printing Trades	1	1.5
11. Miscellaneous Trades in Industries	2	3.0
12. Transportation Services	2	3.0
13. Public Services	4	6.0
14. Personal Services	-	---
15. Miners, etc.	-	---
16. Common Labor	-	---
Total	67 ^A	100.0
Occupations 1 - 6	48	71.6
Occupations 7 - 16	19	28.4

^AThis sample represents approximately 50 percent of the enrollment in the junior college program for the 1922-1923 school year as reported in Table III.

SOURCE: William Asker, A Survey of the Secondary School Population in Joliet, Illinois, 1925 (mimeographed), p. 30.

T A B L E V I I
OCCUPATIONAL CHOICES OF A SAMPLE OF STUDENTS
IN JOLIET JUNIOR COLLEGE, MAY, 1923

Boys			Girls		
Occupation	No.	Percent	Occupation	No.	Percent
Doctor	11	55.0	Teacher	16	72.7
Electrical Engineer	3	15.0	Secretary	2	9.1
Mechanical Engineer	1	5.0	Stenographer	2	9.1
Engineer (General)	1	5.0	Nurse	1	4.5
Lawyer	2	10.0	Author	1	4.5
Accountant	1	5.0			
Business	1	5.0			

SOURCE: William Asker, A Survey of the Secondary School Population in Joliet, Illinois, 1925 (mimeographed), p. 66.

A FIVE-YEAR COURSE

First Year--Latin, Algebra, Greek and Roman History or Physiography, English.

Second Year--Latin, Plane Geometry, Medieval and Modern History or Botany, English.

Third Year--Latin, Advanced Algebra and Solid Geometry, English History, Physics, Literature.

Fourth Year--Latin, American History, Literature, Chemistry or Plane Trigonometry and College Algebra.

Fifth Year--Latin, German or French, Literature, Advanced Physics, Geology and Astronomy.

A SIX-YEAR COURSE

First Year--Latin, Physiography, Arithmetic, Greek and Roman History, English, Algebra.

Second Year--Latin, Botany, Medieval and Modern History, Drawing, English, Plane Geometry.

Third Year--Latin, Advanced Algebra, Solid Geometry, German, French or Spanish, English History, Literature, Physics.

Fourth Year--Latin, Plane Trigonometry and College Algebra, German, French or Spanish, American History, Literature, Chemistry.

Fifth Year--Latin, Literature, German, French or Spanish, Analytic Chemistry, Spherical Trigonometry and Advanced Botany, Zoology and Physiology.

Sixth Year--Latin or Literature, Analytical Geometry and Advanced Physics, Geology and Astronomy, Political Economy, Science of Government and Psychology, German, French or Spanish (30:76-77).

An independent outside study of Joliet Junior College and of two other public junior colleges made under the auspices of the U.S. Bureau of Education during the second semester of the year 1919 also showed clearly the professional orientation of Joliet Junior College. The researchers found that the percentages of total semester hours of work in different subjects were as follows: English Language and Literature, 16.7 percent; Foreign Language and Literature, 16.7 percent; Mathematics, 30.5 percent; Sciences, 23.5 percent; History, 4.2 percent; Social Sciences, 4.2 percent, and Music, 4.2 percent. The author of the report noted the small percentage of time allotted to the social sciences and asked this question: "Can our communities afford to support higher institutions of learning which do not emphasize these foundation citizenship courses?" (42:70).

Brown, who once noted that the high schools "are the common people's colleges," (31:16) apparently had no strong desire to make the junior college vocational or terminal in nature. A greater appreciation on the part of Brown of the possibility of using the junior college to meet some of the other educational needs of the community might have helped to speed up the development of the institution.

A third inhibiting factor, it has been suggested, was the development of the junior college simply as part of the Joliet Township High School. At the same time, it is admitted that, during the first half or three-quarters

of the experimental period, there may have been a strong developmental advantage to the use of a form of organization and control which made no essential distinction between the regular and the extended programs. As Koos wrote in 1924:

Almost exclusively these public junior colleges are housed with high school units, although there are varying degrees of separation of administration, teaching faculty, student body, and social life in the two units. . . . The facts of control and housing of this type of junior college direct attention to what seems to the writer a chief, although not only, factor in their development--that they are upward extensions of our public school system, a step in evolution which is a natural one in communities which have taken care in something like a satisfactory manner of education on the lower levels. The first step was the provision of the work of the common school. Next to follow was the high school. Last to come is what many school authorities believe to be a culmination of the local school system, the junior college. Whatever discrediting considerations may be mustered against this type of development, it does have the recommendation of being in at least one important sense a natural next step for some communities (35:4-5).

Along the same line, Brothers has noted that

Because the work in the public junior college is considered by many as more or less of a post-graduate high school course, there is no doubt that the opposition aroused has been less than it would have been if the junior college had been organized and considered as a separate and distinct department. . . . (9:738.)

With respect to the last influence, it was somewhat unfortunate for Brown that, just about the time the

1. The first part of the report deals with the general situation of the country and the progress of the work during the year. It is divided into two main sections: the first section deals with the general situation of the country and the progress of the work during the year, and the second section deals with the results of the work during the year.

2. The second part of the report deals with the results of the work during the year. It is divided into two main sections: the first section deals with the results of the work during the year, and the second section deals with the results of the work during the year. The first section deals with the results of the work during the year, and the second section deals with the results of the work during the year.

3. The third part of the report deals with the results of the work during the year. It is divided into two main sections: the first section deals with the results of the work during the year, and the second section deals with the results of the work during the year. The first section deals with the results of the work during the year, and the second section deals with the results of the work during the year.

4. The fourth part of the report deals with the results of the work during the year. It is divided into two main sections: the first section deals with the results of the work during the year, and the second section deals with the results of the work during the year. The first section deals with the results of the work during the year, and the second section deals with the results of the work during the year.

school was to emerge as an established junior college, some conflict between him and the Board began to develop. To some extent this conflict was based upon Brown's opposition to including music and art in the high school curriculum (40), but there may have been deeper causes of dissatisfaction--dissatisfaction which, on one occasion, led to a vote of confidence being taken.

Shortly afterwards, on June 11, 1919, while he was on a leave of absence to carry out an assignment for the United States Government in Washington, Brown mailed in his resignation which the Board accepted on July 11, 1919. Thus, Brown left the Joliet Junior College just as the experimental period ends. Afterwards, he became President of the Illinois State Normal School at De Kalb, Illinois.

Major External Influences

In addition to the internal factors discussed above, a number of external influences help to answer the three questions about Joliet Junior College's evolutionary development. The External forces, positive and negative, can be classified under three headings as follows:

- (1) Those originating in the wider educational environment.
- (2) Those originating in the Illinois political system.
- (3) Those originating in the Joliet economic and social system.

The first part of the paper discusses the importance of the study of the history of the English language. It is argued that the study of the history of the English language is not only a matter of historical interest, but also a matter of practical importance. The study of the history of the English language is essential for the understanding of the English language in its present state. It is also essential for the understanding of the English language in its future state. The study of the history of the English language is also essential for the understanding of the English language in its present and future state.

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Influences in the Wider Educational System. The major influences in the wider educational environment seem to be entirely positive in nature. The two major ones recognized are:

- (1) Acceptance of the Joliet secondary schools (City and later Township High School) by the University of Chicago as Co-operating Schools.
- (2) Recognition and encouragement of the Joliet secondary schools by other prestigious institutions of higher learning and by other educational agencies and authorities.

The first point is important mainly from the standpoint of answering the question of how Joliet Junior College came to be initiated in the first place. It is a point, incidentally, whose importance has been surprisingly glossed over by some writers, notably Basler. In view of the fact that it has been largely overlooked, the influence of the University of Chicago is given several paragraphs of depth treatment.

As was briefly pointed out in Chapter II, President William Rainey Harper, shortly after the new University of Chicago opened in 1892, began a plan designed to help secondary schools prepare their students to meet the University's entrance requirements. To this end he held in November 1892 "The First Autumn Conference of University and Preparatory School Teachers" to which representatives from selected secondary schools had been invited. President Harper's idea was that the secondary schools and the University should get to know each other more intimately

so that they could coordinate their efforts in preparing students for successful work at the higher level. At the first meeting, it was decided to hold similar conferences during both the Spring and Fall of subsequent years with each meeting being devoted to the discussion of some key topic relating to the articulation of the secondary schools and the University. Starting in 1899, however, these meetings, which had by then become known as "Conferences of the Affiliated and Co-operating Schools," were held only in the Fall. They continued until 1911 when the University abandoned the attempt to impose standards directly upon public secondary schools in relation with it (2:491).

Out of the very early conferences developed the plan by which public secondary schools that met certain standards, as determined by initial and continuing periodic inspections, might become "Co-operating Schools." These schools, which complemented "Affiliated Academies" directly controlled as branch units of the University, were independent systems which merely cooperated with the University by upgrading their secondary programs and by offering the courses which were deemed necessary to prepare students for successful work at the higher institutions. From such Co-operating Schools "subjects were accepted without examination upon the vouchers, subject by subject, signed by principals and teachers" (48:214). In 1899, the University of Chicago had arrangements with 72 Co-operating Schools of which 32, or 44 percent, were in the State of Illinois though 13 other states were also represented (48:214-215).

The first part of the paper discusses the importance of the study of the history of the United States. It is argued that a knowledge of the past is essential for a full understanding of the present. The author then goes on to discuss the role of the federal government in the development of the country.

The second part of the paper discusses the role of the states in the development of the country. It is argued that the states have played a crucial role in the development of the United States, and that their role should be preserved.

The third part of the paper discusses the role of the people in the development of the country. It is argued that the people are the ultimate source of power in the United States, and that their role should be preserved.

The fourth part of the paper discusses the role of the courts in the development of the country. It is argued that the courts have played a crucial role in the development of the United States, and that their role should be preserved.

The fifth part of the paper discusses the role of the Congress in the development of the country. It is argued that the Congress has played a crucial role in the development of the United States, and that its role should be preserved.

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The seventh part of the paper discusses the role of the Supreme Court in the development of the country. It is argued that the Supreme Court has played a crucial role in the development of the United States, and that its role should be preserved.

The eighth part of the paper discusses the role of the states in the development of the country. It is argued that the states have played a crucial role in the development of the United States, and that their role should be preserved.

The Chicago cooperation plan was an ambitious program designed to bring about needed coordination and uniformity regarding admission requirements--a need which had been publicized widely since the work of the National Education Association "Committee of Ten," organized in 1891, had been reported in 1892 (44:193). In the end, however, the plan failed with one of the reasons being that it had "put the University in the position of interposing obstacles in the attempt of the schools to respond intelligently and sympathetically to the demands of their communities" (2:490). The University Plan appears to have been somewhat inconsistent with other trends along the line of making education more lifelike and practical rather than more academic in nature.

The University of Chicago Co-operation Plan is important as an influence on Joliet Junior College for several reasons. First of all, it may be noted that Brown was a delegate to some of the very earliest conferences. While it is doubtful whether he would have traveled all the way from Oregon to attend the first 1892 meeting, it seems most likely that he was present at some of the conferences within a few years after his arrival in Joliet. Certainly it is known that Joliet was added to the list of Co-operating Schools in 1899--a fact already documented. And after the establishment of the township district, as both the Board of Education Minutes and the University records show, Brown and other Joliet delegates and students typically attended the Fall conferences. Such

attendance may be counted as being of some importance as an influence in that both Brown and Joliet faculty were, through discussions, subjected to some of the very newest ideas in secondary and higher education and the relation between them.

Moreover, from the standpoint of the actual initiation of Joliet Junior College, the University of Chicago was important in that, as has been noted, it exposed Brown to an intensive study of a proposition to reorganize public school education, one reform being the extension of the secondary school upwards by two years. It has been previously suggested as a sound hypothesis that Brown's participation as chairman of a committee to study this proposition from the viewpoint of the secondary school may have been the principal reason for his extension of the high school curriculum in the Joliet Township High School in 1902.

While the University of Chicago and the annual conferences which Brown and other faculty members and students attended was, by the interpretations made, an important external influence, there were other influences in the wider educational environment of importance. The University of Illinois, for example, was a positive force in encouraging Brown, for, even before the Township High School building was occupied, this institution was permitting some Joliet High School graduates to enter the sophomore year so that they could graduate from college in three years rather than in four (31:30). Later, Dr. Edmund J. James, in his

inaugural address in 1905 upon assuming the presidency of the University of Illinois, expressed himself as being very much in favor of encouraging secondary schools to assume the responsibilities of offering freshman and sophomore work (41:143).

Here it should be mentioned that Brown, despite the Joliet cooperative arrangement with the University of Chicago, apparently made little if any effort to direct graduating students into the Harper fold. Table VIII, compiled from data in J. Stanley Brown's personal ledger, shows that a relatively small percentage of Joliet students attended the University of Chicago. Of the 799 students who left Joliet to attend college between 1903 and 1919, only 70, or 8.8 percent, entered the University of Chicago. In contrast, 185, or 23.1 percent, went to the University of Illinois.

To complete the analysis of external influences in the wider educational environment, it is certainly relevant to note the stimulating effects of recognition by accrediting and State educational agencies. These influences, however, do little to answer the key developmental questions of why Joliet originated, why it managed to survive, or why its growth was so slow. Accreditation by the North Central Association in 1917 and the almost simultaneous approval of the school for teacher certification purposes came so late in the experimental period as to be more relevant to the Smith than to the Brown administration. On the other hand, from the negative standpoint, it may be

The first part of the paper discusses the importance of the study of the history of the English language. It is argued that the study of the history of the English language is not only a matter of academic interest but also of practical importance. The study of the history of the English language can help us to understand the development of the English language and to see how it has changed over time. It can also help us to understand the relationship between the English language and other languages.

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T A B L E V I I I

JOLIET TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL (INCLUDING JOLIET JUNIOR COLLEGE)
STUDENTS ENTERING THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, THE
UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS, AND OTHER INSTITUTIONS,
1903-1919

Years	Total Going to College	Total Going to U. of Chicago	Total Going to U. of Illinois	Total Going to Other Institu- tions
1903	28	1	4	23
1904	34	2	11	21
1905	36	1	4	31
1906	40	2	3	35
1907	28	6	4	18
1908	32	1	9	22
1909	35	2	5	28
1910	45	7	13	25
1911	60	8	20	32
1912	55	7	7	41
1913	55	6	12	37
1914	56	1	13	42
1915	71	3	17	51
1916	51	3	11	37
1917	42	5	6	31
1918	61	5	30	26
1919	70	10	16	44
Total	799	70	185	544
Percent	100.0	8.8	23.1	68.1

SOURCE: Compiled from the personal ledger of J. Stanley Brown.



said that the lack of any formal accreditation before 1917, apart from that which Brown could personally negotiate directly with institutions of higher learning, may be one of the reasons for the school's slowness of growth during the experimental period.

Influences in the Illinois Political System. Within the political system, two important influences were these:

- (1) Legislation permitting organization of school districts on the township basis.
- (2) The lack of any official state position bearing on the establishment or financial support of public junior colleges.

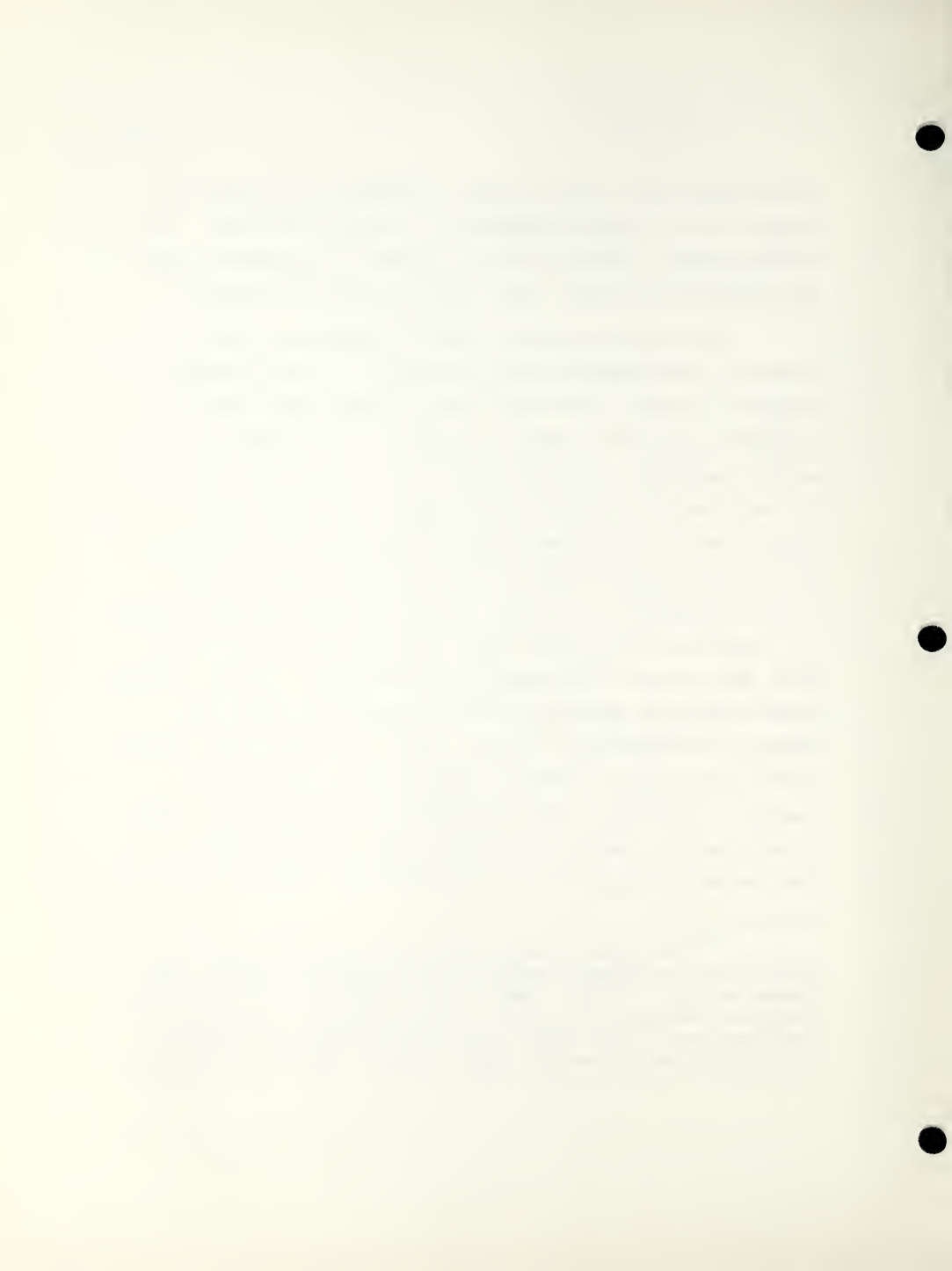
The first influence very definitely was of a positive nature. Because of the laws permitting the formulation of secondary school districts on the township basis, the tax base to support the superior building which came to house the junior college was considerably expanded. Census data show that in 1900 the City of Joliet alone had only 29,353 people whereas the population of the township was 40,537. Thus, by voting for the township plan, the citizens added 11,184 more people to the taxing unit for the high school's support. With this expansion of the tax base, it was possible to build a truly superior building with ample room for offering special services such as the postgraduate classes.

As time went on, the advantage of the districting became even more evident, for between 1900 and 1923 the township population outside the City of Joliet increased

more rapidly than did the city population. As Table IX shows, total township population in 1923 was 65,856. Of these persons, 24,717, or 37.5 percent, as compared with 27.6 percent in 1900, lived outside the City of Joliet.

The second political system influence--lack of an official state position bearing upon the establishment or support of junior colleges¹⁰--may be considered partly positive and partly negative in its effects upon the initiation, survival, and slow growth of Joliet Junior College. It was a positive force in the sense that there was no legal obstacle to Brown's use of the high school building and of high school funds to support the junior college. On the other hand, the same lack of permissive legislation to justify such practices gave Brown some reason to fear that what he was doing might be challenged. As has already been suggested, such fear was one possible reason for Brown's precautionary tactics, which, in turn, help explain both Joliet Junior College's survival and slowness of growth. In balance, the influence was probably more negative than positive in its effects upon the development of the junior college after its initiation. There seems to be

¹⁰While the Illinois State Department of Public Instruction adopted standards for accrediting junior colleges in 1914 (17:72), the State of Illinois had no permissive legislation to legalize establishment of junior colleges until 1937 and no law specifically authorizing the use of tax funds for their support until 1940 (21:18).



T A B L E IX
DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION OF JOLIET TOWNSHIP
HIGH SCHOOL DISTRICT BY DISTRICTS, 1923

Districts	Total Population
<u>Inside Joliet</u>	
District 86	41,139
<u>Outside Joliet</u>	
District 86	21,865
District 84	2,106
District 79	282
District 85	206
District 78	139
District 81	81
District 80	38
	<u>24,717</u>
<u>Total Township</u>	65,856

SOURCE: Joliet Township School Census, 1923, as reported in
Joliet Township High School Bulletin, December, 1923,
p. 8.

ample evidence that Brown did fear that the legality of what he was doing might be challenged.

Brown's own concept, or rationalization, of legality is interesting. Essentially, his position was the simple one of maintaining that every school age child was entitled by law to education at public expense, and a school "child" to his way of thinking was any person between 6 and 21 years of age. All persons who are between 6 and 21 years, he once wrote, "may legally demand education" (13:28). He added that "it was on that basis that the public junior college was established in Joliet in 1902" (13:28).

Influences in the Joliet Economic and Social System.

Within the Joliet economic and social system, two important influences, both of a positive nature, were:

(1) An economy based upon technology and industry which had the effects of (a) making the regular high school program inadequate, in some ways, for thoroughly preparing some kinds of skilled workers needed by local employers; and (b) fostering an awareness on the part of educational leaders of the need for a superior secondary educational system;

(2) Remoteness, given the transportation difficulties of the time, of Joliet from institutions of higher learning.

In Chapter II, it was pointed out that an important macro influence was the steady increase in the use of

The first part of the paper discusses the importance of the study and the objectives of the research. It also outlines the methodology used in the study and the results obtained. The second part of the paper discusses the implications of the study and the conclusions drawn from the research. It also discusses the limitations of the study and the areas for further research.

The third part of the paper discusses the implications of the study and the conclusions drawn from the research. It also discusses the limitations of the study and the areas for further research. The fourth part of the paper discusses the implications of the study and the conclusions drawn from the research. It also discusses the limitations of the study and the areas for further research.

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machine energy and the consequent development of an urbanized, middle-class society needing and wanting a higher level of education than had been necessary when most Americans lived and worked on farms. Joliet is an excellent example of the effects of urban and industrial development during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. A brief review of the city's history and economic development helps to throw some light at least upon why the earliest postgraduate courses were offered in Joliet as well as why the extended high school programs survived.

Under the impact, first, of the building of the Illinois and Michigan Canal, started in 1836 but not completed until 1848, and, secondly, of extensive railroad building between the 1850's and the 1880's, Joliet developed rapidly as a key manufacturing and transportation center. Founded in 1831 and incorporated in 1857, the city grew slowly until 1850 when it had a population of only 2,659. From then on, however, with the exception of the Civil War period, as shown by Chart 4, the city grew rapidly. During the period roughly representing the Brown Administration, from 1900 to 1920, population increased from 29,353 to 38,442, or by 32.3 percent. By this time, however, as the chart shows, the rate of growth was beginning to taper off. The Brown Administration seems to have come at about the end of the second stage of especially rapid progress recognized by Prescott's Law of Growth.

During its development, Joliet passed through several clearly identifiable economic eras. The first

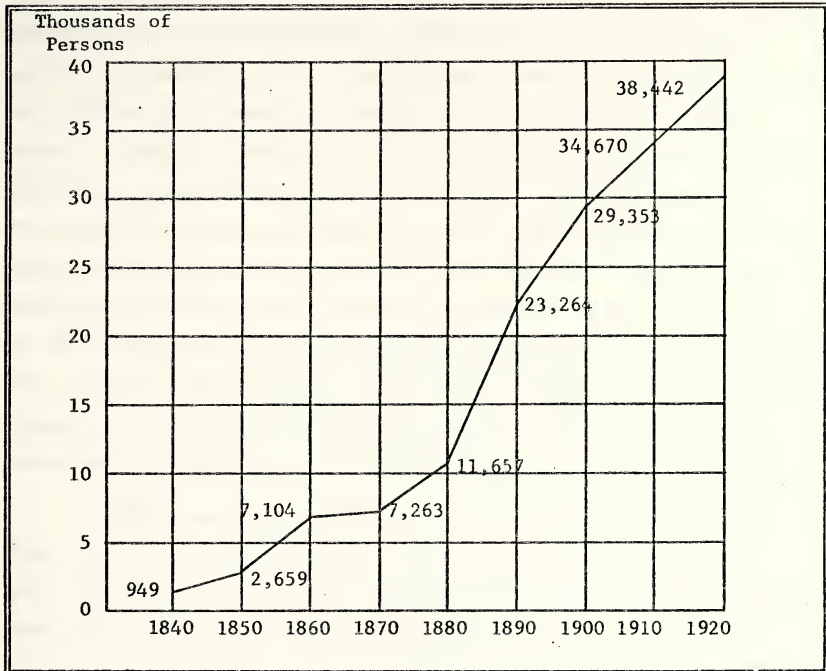


Chart 4. Population of the City of Joliet, Illinois, by Census Years, 1840-1920.

Source: Data for 1840-1870 were taken from U.S. Bureau of the Census, Ninth Census of the United States, 1870, The Statistics of the Population of the United States Embracing the Tables of Race, Nationality, Sex, Selected Ages, and Occupation, 1870, Table III, Population of Civil Divisions Less than Counties, State of Illinois, p. 121.

Data for 1880-1890 were taken from U.S. Bureau of the Census, Compendium of the Eleventh Census: 1890, Part 1: Population: Dwellings and Families; Statistics of Alaska, Table 3, Aggregate Population by Minor Civil Divisions, Illinois, p. 129.

Data for 1900-1920 were taken from Fourteenth Census of the United States Taken in the Year 1920, Vol. I, Population, 1920, Number and Distribution of Inhabitants, Table 51, Population of Incorporated Places, 1920, 1910, and 1900, and Population of Wards of Incorporated Places Having 5,000 Inhabitants or More, 1920, p. 200.



Below the box, there is a section of text that is extremely faint and illegible. It appears to be a list or a series of paragraphs, but the content cannot be discerned due to the low contrast and blurriness of the scan. The text is located in the lower half of the page, below the large box.

period is sometimes known as "the Stone Age." It was the period, including the 1870's and 1880's, when limestone quarrying was Joliet's chief industry with the city having in 1884 sixteen quarries employing 1,175 persons (32:3). Later, though starting in the 1870's when the first rolling mill was opened, came "the Steel Age." Still later was "the Age of Diversification," when a wide variety of manufacturing activities, a notable one of which was the production of barbed wire, characterized the Joliet economy. By the time of the Brown administration, the chemical industry, among others, was an important economic activity which required a supply of technicians and technologists with a somewhat advanced level of training in the basic sciences.

This need, according to C. E. Spicer, was one of the primary stimuli for the first postgraduate courses offered at Joliet. Basler quotes a letter from the former Head of the Science Department as follows:

Junior colleges are, today, "established," "organized," "decreed," but, in those days, they "grew," if they developed at all. And they grew because of a real public need. . . . I have said "a real public need," and in our case that need was economic in nature, distinctly so. There was nothing in the nature of "local pride," "desire to outdo other communities," or even, perhaps, "educational vision," that motivated this expansion. The ample cause was a strong undercurrent of public dissatisfaction because our young men, graduates of the then new high school, could not convert their training in the high school into employment and monetary returns (5:25).

The first part of the paper discusses the importance of the study of the history of the United States. It is argued that the study of the history of the United States is essential for a full understanding of the country and its people. The paper then goes on to discuss the various factors that have shaped the history of the United States, including the role of the government, the economy, and the culture.

The second part of the paper discusses the role of the government in the history of the United States. It is argued that the government has played a central role in the development of the country, and that its actions have shaped the course of history. The paper then goes on to discuss the various ways in which the government has influenced the country, including through its policies, its actions, and its institutions.

The third part of the paper discusses the role of the economy in the history of the United States. It is argued that the economy has played a central role in the development of the country, and that its growth has shaped the course of history. The paper then goes on to discuss the various ways in which the economy has influenced the country, including through its production, its distribution, and its consumption.

It is unfortunate that Spicer's claims for the existence of widespread community demand for postgraduate vocational training cannot be documented by any other available source. It may be that, in writing from memory some thirty years later, he overstated the case for public demand. As has been previously pointed out and documented by Table V, enrollment in the postgraduate course never at any time constituted as much as even one percent of the school age population aged 6 to 21 years. Table X, which compares the postgraduate enrollment with enrollment in the four-year high school programs of Joliet Township High School, presents a more refined analysis. Here, too, enrollment in the postgraduate courses never exceeded more than 8.63 percent of the four-year high school enrollment. Both of these indicate very limited usage of the postgraduate program despite the fact that the curriculum, as has also been noted, placed a heavy emphasis upon science which formed a good basis for securing some of the better jobs in Joliet's technological industries.

At the same time, there is ample evidence to suggest that early educational leaders were clearly aware that Joliet's economy demanded a superior secondary educational program designed to meet the needs of adults and non-college youths as well as the needs of those planning professional careers. As evidence of awareness, the Board of the Joliet Township High School voted on November 12, 1912, to establish night classes to help prepare Joliet people for occupational skills. From all appearances, the night

T A B L E X

POSTGRADUATE ENROLLMENT IN RELATION TO
HIGH SCHOOL ENROLLMENT OF JOLIET
TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL, SELECTED
YEARS, 1902-1918

School Years	High School Enrollment ^A	Postgraduate Enrollment ^B	Postgraduate as Percent of High School
1902-1903	765	22	2.87
1904-1905	872	28	3.21
1906-1907	992	24	2.50
1907-1908	957	32	3.28
1908-1909	955	54	5.65
1910-1911	979	40	4.08
1911-1912	1010	52	5.15
1912-1913	1018	76	7.46
1914-1915	1129	75	6.64
1916-1917	1507	75	4.98
1917-1918	1251	108	8.63

^AAnnual Report of the Condition of Common Schools in the County of Will, State of Illinois.

^BMinutes of the Board of Education, Joliet Township High School.



school was an astounding success. Enrollment as of the opening date, December 12, 1912, was 190, and during the next year, between October 13, 1913, and March 14, 1914, it was 600 (34). In October 1913, the enrollment included persons aged 16 to 60 taking such courses as stenography and typing, domestic science, mechanical drawing, physiography, chemistry, English literature, arithmetic, Spanish, and penmanship (34). The enrollment figures would suggest that many of Joliet's ordinary citizens, as well as its educational leaders, recognized the vocational importance of education in an industrial society. As yet, however, this recognition on the part of the educational leaders did not view the postgraduate program as the place for meeting these needs.

It possibly might be argued, today, that Brown missed a golden opportunity by not striving to include the evening school within the program of the junior college. There is no indication, however, that he ever had any intention of making the junior college a "community" college. In an article which was published in The School Review of September 1904, Brown showed clearly that he was entirely in sympathy with the philosophy of making the secondary schools serve the needs of all people, saying at that time that it was highly desirable for all schools to offer adult evening classes (11:567-568), but he apparently wished to preserve the junior college as an institution designed to serve mainly those who would continue their educations at institutions of higher learning.

Brown's philosophy in this regard may have been, for the times, a wise one. Meeting the needs of all the people implied the need for an institution offering two years of college work because the remoteness of Joliet from institutions of higher learning was a definite limitation for many of the city's young people in getting a college education. Writing in The School Review for May 1914, Henry E. Brown stated:

In such a community as Joliet, it would be almost impossible for these pupils to contemplate a college course were it not for the possibilities offered in the high school. The General Education Board recently made an investigation of the constituency of American colleges and produced the startling fact that all of our American colleges are in fact local institutions (10:289-301).

Before concluding the discussion of external social influences, it should be noted that in Chapter II it was suggested that America's polygot population and assimilation problems during the first two decades of the twentieth century were a generally negative force in the development of the junior college, no evidence was found to show that this generalization holds true at Joliet. To be sure, as Table XI clearly shows, the Joliet Township District did have a polygot population representing both the "old immigration" and the "new immigration," but there is no evidence whatsoever that this fact in any way hindered the development of Brown's junior college. As one issue of the school's Bulletin shows, the Joliet Township High School prided itself on the fact that it was "the melting pot" where "all

T A B L E X I
DISTRIBUTION OF JOLIET TOWNSHIP POPULATION BY
NATIONALITIES, 1923

Nationalities	Number	Percent
Natives (including 1,082 Negroes)	16,575	25.2
Germans	8,616	13.1
Czechoslovaks ^A	8,091	12.3
Irish	6,161	9.4
Italians	4,288	6.5
Swedes	3,715	5.6
Poles	3,272	4.9
English	2,828	4.3
Austrians	1,948	3.0
Others	<u>10,362</u>	<u>15.7</u>
Total	65,856	100.0

^AMr. Leland Thornton, faculty member of Joliet Township High School and member of the Will County Historical Society, believes this category should be "Slovene" instead of that listed.

SOURCE: Joliet Township High School Census, 1923, as reported in Joliet Township High School Bulletin, December, 1923, p. 8.



classes of people from all walks of life" were brought into a harmonious understanding of one another (27:5). As the night school enrollment would suggest, many of the foreign born were quite ambitious and appreciative of educational opportunities and it seems certain that never at any time did any element in the community object to, or attempt to obstruct, the initiation and development of the Joliet Junior College.

Summary of Major Internal and
External Forces Helping to
Answer Three Key Development
Questions

Now that both internal and external influences bearing upon Joliet Junior College's initiation, survival, and slow growth during the experimental period have been explored at some depth, a few broad generalizations may be warranted. In the summary which follows, influences are organized according to their relevance in answering the three key questions: (1) What were some of the principal factors explaining the school's initiation? (2) Why did the experimental postgraduate program manage to survive and develop, albeit slowly? (3) Why was growth slow during the period of the Brown administration?

Major Influences on Initiation. With respect to initiation, it is difficult to say which was the most important--internal or external influences. Perhaps the best generalization is that the major influence was an interaction of internal and external forces. Although the

The first part of the paper discusses the importance of the study of the history of the English language. It is argued that a knowledge of the history of the language is essential for a full understanding of the language itself. The second part of the paper discusses the importance of the study of the history of the English language. It is argued that a knowledge of the history of the language is essential for a full understanding of the language itself.

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point has been generally overlooked by other writers, it seems abundantly clear that the really important factor leading to the initiation of the full two years of extended work in 1902 was the relationship which Brown (as an internal force) had with the University of Chicago (an external force). Brown's strong leadership and visionary approach to the junior college were, in many ways, outgrowths of his participation in the University of Chicago Plan.

Other extremely important influences helping to answer the first question were these: (1) a superior high school program even before the township district was formed, (2) early experimentation with postgraduate work, whether of a high school or a college level, (3) organization of the township district and the subsequent construction of a superior physical plant with ample rooms for special programs, (4) intelligent and progressive lay leadership during the early years, (5) some degree at least of popular demand for vocational education beyond that offered in the four-year high school, and (6) a permissive attitude toward the extended program on the part of the Board, the Community, and the State.

Major Influences on Survival and Steady Development. The major factor which helps to explain the school's survival and steady, though slow, development during the experimental period is also an interaction of internal and external influences. There is very good reason to believe that the principal reason the school survived was that,

through Brown's wise, cautious, and mild-mannered leadership, the postgraduate school was enabled to develop slowly, but surely, in a noncontroversial community climate. Brown's tactics, however, are understandable only in terms of external influences on him--his knowledge of some of the possible obstacles that might arise as a result of his participation on Harper's Commission of Twenty-one, plus the fact that, though the attitude of the state seemed permissive, there was no actual legislation to give a really firm legal support to the program.

Survival and steady development were also positively influenced by other factors of both an internal and an external nature. Some of those which bear repeating and reemphasis include: (1) development of the fifth- and sixth-year programs simply as a "natural" part of the high school, (2) the association of both Brown and the high school faculty members with educational leaders at the annual conferences of the University of Chicago up until about 1911, (3) the esteem in which Joliet Township High School was held by some professors at institutions of higher learning particularly the University of Illinois, (4) and formal recognition, during the latter part of the period, of the junior college both by the State Agency of Education and the North Central Association.

Major Influences Explaining the Slowness of Growth.

There is good reason to believe that some of the same influences which enabled the institution to survive and to



develop also tended to make its growth rather slow. Of these influences, the principal one seems to have been Brown's cautious leadership. It appears that, while Brown was an educational reformer, he in no sense was a revolutionist. On the contrary, he may have been somewhat too cautious with respect to the nonpromotion of the institution locally. On the other hand, it is quite possible that slow growth was a necessary, or at least a facilitating, condition for survival and any growth at all. Brown apparently felt that too much promotion of his reforms, and too-rapid development of the program, might invite reactionary opposition to jeopardize the very survival of the school. He may have been right!

Other things apart from the internal nonpromotion of the junior college idea which help to explain the slow growth are the following: (1) the lack, until late in the experimental period, of any accreditation apart from that which Brown could negotiate personally with institutions of higher learning, (2) the nonseparate form of organization and control which prevailed before the institution of the "committee system" in 1913¹¹ and the completion of the new addition to the building, and (3) the somewhat narrow, highly specialized nature of the curriculum planned

¹¹According to this letter the "committee system of administration" was worked out primarily by C. E. Spicer in 1912 and went into effect in 1913 (38). Three members comprised the committee. Prior to this time "work of the post-graduate students was carefully sponsored by the superintendent and assistant superintendent from 1902-1912" (30:7).



almost entirely to meet the needs of students preparing for advanced degrees from institutions of higher learning.

The Rapid Growth Period, 1919 to 1929

As was noted at the beginning of this chapter, the L. W. Smith administration, corresponding roughly with the macro 1920 to 1929 rapid growth period, was one of marked progress. The main task of the analysis, then, is to draw attention to influences which help to explain the rapid enrollment advances made during this period. Before the internal and external analyses are presented, however, it should be noted that a great deal of the growth of this second period was the more or less "natural" result of the solid groundwork laid down during the preceding Brown administration, which, as has been noted, itself took on a new direction about 1918.

Major Internal Influences

The major internal influences of a positive nature which help to explain rapid growth during the Smith administration may be fairly set forth as follows:

- (1) Adoption and implementation of a definite policy to promote the junior college as such to the members of the Joliet community.
- (2) Continuance of the practice, initiated about 1918 by Brown, to organize, administer, and control the school as more distinctly a separate junior college.

1. The first part of the report deals with the general situation of the country and the position of the various groups of the population.

2. The second part of the report deals with the economic situation of the country.

The economic situation of the country is characterized by a high degree of unemployment and a low level of industrial production. The agricultural sector is also in a state of stagnation, and the services sector is not able to absorb the large number of unemployed workers. The government has taken various measures to improve the economic situation, but these have not been sufficient to bring about a significant improvement. The situation is therefore very serious, and it is necessary to take more drastic measures to improve the economic situation of the country.

The third part of the report deals with the social situation of the country. The social situation is characterized by a high level of poverty and a low level of social services. The government has taken various measures to improve the social situation, but these have not been sufficient to bring about a significant improvement. The situation is therefore very serious, and it is necessary to take more drastic measures to improve the social situation of the country.

The fourth part of the report deals with the political situation of the country. The political situation is characterized by a high level of corruption and a low level of political participation. The government has taken various measures to improve the political situation, but these have not been sufficient to bring about a significant improvement. The situation is therefore very serious, and it is necessary to take more drastic measures to improve the political situation of the country.

- (3) Continuance of the school's evolution under intelligent, progressive, and effective leadership of a type which maintained for the institution the national prestige it had enjoyed during the Brown administration.

There is no doubt that the first point was highly important. The active efforts undertaken to promote the junior college as such to the Joliet community--efforts which, as has previously been noted, Brown never attempted, though perhaps wisely so--took such forms as these:

- (1) official adoption of the name Joliet Junior College,
- (2) publication beginning in April 1921 of a series of Joliet Township High School Bulletins, with one of the primary objectives being that of making the Joliet Junior College better known in the community (23:6), and
- (3) publication, beginning in 1920, of an annual Junior College Catalogue to make the offerings of the junior college better known to people outside as well as within the Joliet community.

It is interesting to quote two statements from the earliest issues of the Joliet Township High School Bulletin. The following two statements throw a great deal of light both upon Brown's prior cautious tactics and upon the policy of the new Smith administration with respect to the question of what, today, would be called "public relations":

Joliet Township rounds out its system of secondary education with a Junior College which is perhaps better known outside the immediate vicinity than it is within the community which so generously fosters it (23:7).

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DIVISION OF THE PHYSICAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF CHEMISTRY

RESEARCH REPORT
No. 1000
JANUARY 1960

BY
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AND
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At a later time it is the plan to describe in detail the activities of the Joliet Junior College. For the present a brief sketch will suffice. It is the belief of the school that the people of Joliet will be interested in the many types of activities represented by this institution, which are relatively unfamiliar to them (25:3).

Near the end of the Smith administration, the entire issue of the Joliet Township High School Bulletin, the issue of June 1928, was devoted to the junior college. In the meantime, through the prior bulletins, the Joliet community had been given far more information about their institution than Brown had ever released during the experimental period. It is hardly to be doubted that the new policy--one which was then justified in view of the fact that Joliet Junior College had indeed become an accepted part of the social fabric¹²--did much to foster growth and progress.

Moreover, with reference to Point 2 listed above. Smith was able to continue without any reason for fearing possible opposition, the practice initiated by Brown in 1918 of organizing the school more distinctly as a junior college in accordance with standards recommended by the

¹²It will be recalled that, according to Prescott's Law of Growth, this acceptance of an institution as a part of the social fabric is a key characteristic of the second rapid growth period recognized by the law.

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North Central Association and other accrediting agencies. Important steps in the school's evolution under Smith were the organizing of completely separate junior college library facilities in 1921 (24:3), the requirement (imposed after 1918) that all new faculty members hired to teach academic subjects in the Junior College have the Master's degree, and the "adoption of regulations which (gave) more privileges and greater freedom to the (junior college) student than (were) possible in the high school" (23:6).

As for the third influence, it is certainly fair to say that Smith, like Brown, was an educational leader of a high calibre. Hired by the Board on July 19, 1919, after C. E. Spicer had respectfully declined the superintendency (34), Dr. Smith came to Joliet from Harvey, Illinois. Having been the first president of the Illinois High School Principal's Association and the author of its constitution, and having made a survey of the Illinois secondary school system which had been published by the State Department of Public Instruction in 1917, Smith was already well known in Illinois educational circles. Afterwards, he attained national recognition through his election in 1925 to the presidency of the American Association of Junior Colleges (28:3). Near the end of his administration at Joliet, which he left in 1928 to go to California, Smith won still more recognition through research done at the junior college, under the auspices of the North Central Association, aimed at eliminating duplication of educational efforts at the secondary and college levels

(22:193-194). Like Brown before him, he seems to have been quite a leadership asset for the Joliet Junior College.

External Influences

Though the internal influences were important, there can be little doubt that external forces were also most effective in promoting the rapid development of Joliet Junior College during the Smith administration. They may, in fact, have been far more important than the internal influences.

One very notable outside factor was the increasing tendency--related, no doubt, to Smith's publicizing efforts--of students from other communities and schools to attend the junior college. The school's Bulletin for March 1922 contains this statement:

The enrollment in the college for the current year shows an increase of approximately 25 per cent over that of 1920-1921. The amount of increase in itself is encouraging to all friends of the college, but there are two favorable influences affecting the growth of the school, to which special attention is directed. These influences related to the percentage of students coming from outside the township and to the transfer from other colleges.

A report just made to the North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges shows that the list of high schools contributing to the present enrollment is probably the largest in the history of the college. An examination of the freshman enrollment for the two semesters of this year reveals that almost one-fifth are non-resident. The schools, from which these students come are vigorous, public and private secondary

institutions that cover a relatively wide area in this section of the state (26:6).

The macro external influences characteristic of the 1920's previously examined in Chapter II also help to explain the rapid growth of the Joliet Junior College during the Smith Administration. Smith himself recognized the importance of the outside climate favorable to the development of the school when he authorized for publication in the April 1921 Bulletin the following statement:

. . . Joliet Junior College enjoys much prestige [outside the community]. The interest in the junior college movement is very much in evidence. The unusual demands made upon the universities since the war, the growing sense of responsibility felt by the community for providing additional training for young people of superior mental endowment, and the educational tendency toward reclassification of students from the junior high school up through the universities have all focused the attention of educators on the junior college (23:7).

Of very considerable importance, too, was the steady gains made under the Smith administration in the way of getting junior college work accepted, credit for credit, at the University of Illinois.¹³ By the end of

¹³According to Basler, "the process of securing recognition from the University of Illinois for individual courses as new subjects were added was still proceeding apace during the nineteen twenties. The writer (Basler) has examined the files of voluminous correspondence carried on at that time between Superintendent Smith and the Registrar at the University. Persistence and tenacity

Smith's administration, recognition of the Junior College's academic work by institutions of higher learning was complete, though Smith, according to the Bulletin for June 1928 was frequently plagued by rumors to the effect that credit was lost in transferring from the junior college to other institutions.

Periodically, unfounded rumors are circulated in the community to the effect that the Junior College students when transferring to other colleges and universities do not get full credit for the work done here. These reports are rapidly circulated, although they have no basis in fact. Students graduating from our Junior College receive hour for hour credit in colleges and universities and are treated just as advantageously as other students from other collegiate institutions (29:1).

The analysis of external influences would hardly be complete without noting that the optimistic mood of the 1920's--a macro influence noted in Chapter II--was quite evident in Joliet. Nowhere is the spirit of the booming 1920's better manifested than in a forecast of Joliet's future issued in 1921 by the City Planning Department. Stating that "it is evident that the estimated population increase [predicted] is conservative" (6:10), the Commission unhesitatingly extrapolated the City's population from the 1910 census figure of 34,670 to 160,000 by 1950 (in 1950, Joliet had a population of 51,601 and in 1960, 66,780). In line with such forecasts, there were later

eventually brought recognition for all the college courses one by one" (5:27).

The following table shows the results of the experiment. The first column shows the number of trials, the second column shows the number of correct responses, and the third column shows the percentage of correct responses. The data is as follows:

Trial	Correct	Percentage
1	1	100%
2	1	100%
3	1	100%
4	1	100%
5	1	100%
6	1	100%
7	1	100%
8	1	100%
9	1	100%
10	1	100%
11	1	100%
12	1	100%
13	1	100%
14	1	100%
15	1	100%
16	1	100%
17	1	100%
18	1	100%
19	1	100%
20	1	100%
21	1	100%
22	1	100%
23	1	100%
24	1	100%
25	1	100%
26	1	100%
27	1	100%
28	1	100%
29	1	100%
30	1	100%
31	1	100%
32	1	100%
33	1	100%
34	1	100%
35	1	100%
36	1	100%
37	1	100%
38	1	100%
39	1	100%
40	1	100%
41	1	100%
42	1	100%
43	1	100%
44	1	100%
45	1	100%
46	1	100%
47	1	100%
48	1	100%
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67	1	100%
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71	1	100%
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75	1	100%
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78	1	100%
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87	1	100%
88	1	100%
89	1	100%
90	1	100%
91	1	100%
92	1	100%
93	1	100%
94	1	100%
95	1	100%
96	1	100%
97	1	100%
98	1	100%
99	1	100%
100	1	100%

The results of the experiment show that the subjects performed at a level of 100% accuracy across all trials. This suggests that the subjects were able to learn the task quickly and accurately. The results also suggest that the task was relatively easy for the subjects to perform.

The following table shows the results of the experiment. The first column shows the number of trials, the second column shows the number of correct responses, and the third column shows the percentage of correct responses. The data is as follows:

Trial	Correct	Percentage
1	1	100%
2	1	100%
3	1	100%
4	1	100%
5	1	100%
6	1	100%
7	1	100%
8	1	100%
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16	1	100%
17	1	100%
18	1	100%
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41	1	100%
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75	1	100%
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83	1	100%
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85	1	100%
86	1	100%
87	1	100%
88	1	100%
89	1	100%
90	1	100%
91	1	100%
92	1	100%
93	1	100%
94	1	100%
95	1	100%
96	1	100%
97	1	100%
98	1	100%
99	1	100%
100	1	100%

The results of the experiment show that the subjects performed at a level of 100% accuracy across all trials. This suggests that the subjects were able to learn the task quickly and accurately. The results also suggest that the task was relatively easy for the subjects to perform.

grandiose schemes to model Joliet somewhat after Paris, France. While documentation is difficult, it is hardly doubted that the optimistic temper of mind which prevailed in Joliet during the "Jazz Age" had some effect upon stimulating enrollment in Joliet Junior College.

The foregoing analysis has been quite fruitful in the way of yielding insights into the nature of the initiation, survival, steady but slow early development, and later rapid development of Joliet Junior College. In the next chapter, another case study is presented in a continuance of the attempt to determine major influences on the development of pioneer junior colleges.

1. The first part of the document discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all transactions and the role of the accounting department in ensuring the integrity of the financial statements.

2. The second part of the document describes the various methods used to collect and analyze data, including the use of statistical software and the importance of sample size and representativeness.

3. The third part of the document discusses the results of the study and the implications for future research and practice.

4. The fourth part of the document discusses the limitations of the study and the need for further research to address these limitations.

5. The fifth part of the document discusses the conclusions of the study and the implications for future research and practice.

6. The sixth part of the document discusses the acknowledgments and the role of the funding agency in supporting the research.

7. The seventh part of the document discusses the references and the sources of the data used in the study.

8. The eighth part of the document discusses the appendices and the additional information provided to support the findings of the study.

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CHAPTER IV

CASE STUDY NO. 2: THE JUNIOR COLLEGE AT

GOSHEN, INDIANA

The junior college at Goshen, a northern Indiana town with 7,810 people in 1900 (21:615), is another excellent institution to study as a means of determining major influences on the development of public junior colleges. Established at almost the same time as was the Joliet postgraduate program, the Goshen extended high school was different in that it survived for only a short time, never outliving the macro experimental period. The study of this institution, then, is a study of a developmental failure. The key questions to be answered are why the program was started at all and why it withered and died shortly after it was instituted.

Before the facts are analyzed, it should be noted that the available source materials on the Goshen institution are quite scant. Some of the more valuable documents, apparently, have either been lost or destroyed. Writing in 1933, Adams (1:71-77), the only published author who has attempted to trace Goshen's history, mentioned certain University of Chicago records which "lack of space" (1:73) prevented him from including in his short article, but research for the present analysis disclosed only a few

records still extant in the archives of the University of Chicago. An attempt was made to fill in some of the gaps by interviewing a teacher who had early associations with the Goshen schools,¹ but the age and lapsed memories made the interview generally unfruitful though interesting and gratefully appreciated.

The Developmental Pattern

Although Goshen's developmental history is quite short--extending roughly from 1901 to about 1911--it can be divided into three recognizable periods. These include: (1) the period of preparation, planning and promotion leading to the initiation of college-level postgraduate work; (2) the period of early enthusiasm and expansion of the program; and (3) the period of decline and ultimate abandonment of the college-level postgraduate program. The next three sections analyze major internal² and external influences associated with each of these three periods.

¹This teacher, Miss Clara Troutwein, was confined at the time of the interview in a convalescent home in Goshen. Miss Troutwein had taught in the Goshen High School from 1912 through 1937 and had been associated with the elementary schools of Goshen prior to this time.

²In this chapter, internal influences are limited to those originating specifically in the Goshen school system of which the extended high school program was a part.

The Period of Preparation, Planning,

Promotion and Initiation,

1901 to 1905

Unlike the junior college at Joliet, the extended high school program at Goshen represented a revolutionary, rather than an evolutionary, attempt to force educational change. While all direct action was preceded by an antecedent period starting at least as early as 1901, when some postgraduate work was offered, the Goshen two-year post-high school program was, between 1904 and 1905, philosophically rationalized, deliberately planned, actively promoted, boldly initiated, and shortly afterwards endorsed by the University of Chicago.

What were some of the major influences which produced such an unprecedented approach to junior college establishment? To answer this question, both internal and external forces are analyzed separately in the following two sections. It is important, however, to note that there was a high degree of interaction between the more important of these internal and external influences.

Major Internal Influences

As well as can be determined from the somewhat scant source materials, the major internal influences which culminated in the initiation of college-level postgraduate work in the Goshen schools were two in number. They are:

- (1) The uncritical and somewhat unrealistic leadership (or possibly the personal ambition) of the Goshen superintendent of schools.
- (2) The existence of at least some rationale for an extended high school in the way of (a) a rapidly growing high school enrollment, (b) a high school program which enjoyed a degree of reputation for excellence, (c) evidence that a few Goshen high school graduates did desire postgraduate opportunities, and (d) the construction of a modern, well-equipped and roomy high school building.

From the standpoint of initiating the extended high school program, the influences noted above may be deemed to have been positive in nature. Since, however, there is some question as to whether it was prudent to initiate such a program, it is difficult to place an entirely positive value upon the influences. It may be suggested that the unrealistic enthusiasm of the leadership was actually a negative influence for the long-run survival of the program although it did bring about the program's initiation.

One thing is very certain: in order to understand why and how the junior college program at Goshen came into existence, it is necessary above all to know something about the person who directly assumed the initiative for getting it started. This was Victor W. B. Hedgepeth, one of the five superintendents which the Goshen Board of Education employed between 1899 and 1911.³ That he was the

³These superintendents included W. H. Sims, whose administration ended in 1899; J. F. Rieman, who served two terms from 1899 to 1901; Victor W. B. Hedgepeth, who held

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dominant force behind the junior college at Goshen, there can be no doubt. It is also true that Superintendent Hedgepeth could never have acted as ambitiously as he did without at least the tacit approval of the Board, whose own role in the promotion of the program, unfortunately, cannot be known.

In many ways, particularly with respect to his "boldness" as an educational reformer, Hedgepeth was the direct opposite from J. Stanley Brown. Adams, in his historical sketch, described the superintendent as a person "of the type that, once convinced of the wisdom of a given course, left no stone unturned to assure its success" (1:71). This characterization seems to be a fair one but it does not completely explain the person or his actions. While Superintendent Hedgepeth undoubtedly had a sincere faith in the wisdom of an extended high school, there is at least the mild suggestion that he may have been motivated in a large measure by personal ambition. Certainly it is relevant to note that shortly after getting the postgraduate program started, he left the educational profession entirely to avail himself of what he described as "offers of fair remuneration and exceptional opportunity" (3:September 24, 1906) in the insurance field.

the position between 1901 and 1906; Miss Lillian E. Michael, the former principal of the Goshen High School who replaced Hedgepeth in 1906 and who served until 1911; and Mr. Edgar Mendenhall, 1911-1916, who replaced Miss Michael when she resigned in order to become married (23:260).

The first part of the paper discusses the importance of the study of the history of the Chinese language. It is pointed out that the study of the history of the Chinese language is not only a matter of academic interest, but also a matter of practical importance. The study of the history of the Chinese language can help us to understand the development of the Chinese language and the culture of the Chinese people. It can also help us to understand the relationship between the Chinese language and other languages.

The second part of the paper discusses the development of the Chinese language from ancient times to the present. It is pointed out that the Chinese language has a long history and has developed through a long process. The Chinese language has been influenced by many factors, including the development of the Chinese culture, the contact with other languages, and the changes in the social and economic conditions.

The third part of the paper discusses the current status of the Chinese language and the challenges it faces. It is pointed out that the Chinese language is facing many challenges, including the influence of foreign languages, the changes in the social and economic conditions, and the changes in the cultural values. However, the Chinese language is still a very important part of the Chinese culture and the Chinese people's life. It is necessary to take measures to protect and promote the Chinese language.

The fourth part of the paper discusses the future of the Chinese language. It is pointed out that the Chinese language will continue to develop and change in the future. It is necessary to take measures to protect and promote the Chinese language, and to ensure that it remains an important part of the Chinese culture and the Chinese people's life.

In conclusion, the study of the history of the Chinese language is a very important task. It can help us to understand the development of the Chinese language and the culture of the Chinese people. It can also help us to understand the relationship between the Chinese language and other languages. We should take measures to protect and promote the Chinese language, and to ensure that it remains an important part of the Chinese culture and the Chinese people's life.

Hedgepeth began his superintendency only a short time before he began promoting the extended high school idea in Goshen. His predecessor, one J. F. Rieman, had apparently failed to impress the Board which, on April 18, 1901, voted unanimously not to renew Rieman's two-year contract when it expired on July 1, 1901 (3:April 18, 1901). The next month, on May 7, 1901, the Board hired Victor W. B. Hedgepeth at a salary of \$1,700 per year as the new superintendent (3:May 7, 1901). The Minutes from that date note that Hedgepeth was from Lagrange, Indiana, but make no mention of his qualifications or of the Board's reasons for selecting him.

Like Brown at Joliet, Hedgepeth assumed the superintendency at a favorable time for initiating change. During his first year, plans were laid for the construction of a new high school building as a result of the Board voting on January 30, 1902, to purchase a site for it (3:January 30, 1902). Although the old building was only 17 years old, soaring high school enrollment--from 99 in 1890 to 240 in 1900 (4:21)--necessitated the expansion of facilities. Actual construction of the new two-story, brick building, which was placed in front of, and adjoined to, the old one, began in 1903. The contract was let on May 14 of that year (3:May 14, 1903). It is not known exactly when the building was completed but it was ready for occupancy by the start of the 1904-1905 school year (23:258). Thus, as in Joliet, there was in Goshen ample physical space and sufficient equipment of high quality for the offering of college-level postgraduate courses.



In addition to the new building, another internal asset worked in the superintendent's favor. That was the existence of a good high school program to serve as a foundation for higher work. Since 1895 the high school had been under the principalship of Miss Lillian E. Michael who, apparently, had done much both to stimulate enrollment and to gain for the school some reputation for excellence. At the Board meeting of May 17, 1900, the soon-to-be-released superintendent (J. F. Rieman) addressed the lay members as follows:

It should be a source of satisfaction to the people of the City to know that the work of Goshen High School is recognized by educational institutions of the highest rank, and that our students may enter, without further examination, the leading colleges of the land. At present, all the colleges of Indiana, and the State University, Vassar and Oberlin Colleges, Cornell, Michigan, and Chicago University⁴ stand ready to receive our graduates upon recommendation of the principal or superintendent, and without question. . . . (4:27).

While Superintendent Rieman may have overstated somewhat the case for excellence, the high school program was at least sufficiently attractive to encourage some graduates to return for additional secondary-level work. According to Superintendent Hedgepeth's own testimony,

⁴In evaluating this claim with respect to the University of Chicago, see President Harper's letter of June 25, 1904, to Superintendent Hedgepeth, quoted on page 145.

The first part of the paper discusses the importance of the
 research and the objectives of the study. The second part
 describes the methodology used in the study. The third part
 presents the results of the study. The fourth part discusses
 the implications of the findings. The fifth part concludes the
 paper.



The results of the study show that the relationship between the
 variables is significant. The findings suggest that the
 model is a good fit for the data. The study also found that
 the variables have a positive impact on the outcome. The
 results are consistent with the previous research. The study
 provides valuable insights into the relationship between the
 variables.

twelve of 105 graduates for the years 1901, 1902, and 1903 returned "to do further undergraduate work" (12:20).

Before leaving Superintendent Rieman's 1900 statement claiming recognition of the Goshen High School by "educational institutions of the highest rank" (4:27), it should be noted that when the statement was made, Goshen had no formal cooperating agreement with the University of Chicago. It was not until March 8, 1902, that the University of Chicago's Director of Co-operating Work recommended Goshen for admission to the list of cooperating schools--a recommendation which was approved on the same date (5). Thus, while there may have been previous negotiations and bargaining, formal relations were not established until after Hedgepeth had assumed the superintendency.

The more important point to be made, however, is that Goshen High School was associated with the University of Chicago under a cooperative agreement when the 1902 Autumn Conference was held. It was at this meeting, it will be recalled, that the Commission of Twenty-one was formed to study President Harper's reorganization proposition. Quite likely it was this conference and the discussion of the proposition which doubtlessly took place during it which first gave Superintendent Hedgepeth the idea of an extended high school program at Goshen. At any rate, it seems clear that, as Adams notes, Hedgepeth soon came "under the spell of President Harper's conviction favoring the junior college idea" (1:71).

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It was not, however, until the Summer of 1904 that Superintendent Hedgepeth actually proposed his plan for an extended high school program at Goshen. The first tangible evidence of what he had in mind is a letter dated June 14, 1904, to President Harper--a letter which initiated an exchange of correspondence between Goshen and Chicago that ultimately resulted in "an agreement between the University of Chicago and Goshen High School in accordance with which the University will accept the work of the Goshen High School for advanced standing" (12:22). While this agreement called for Goshen offering both a fifth-year and a sixth-year program of three terms each, Superintendent Hedgepeth, judging from his initiating letter, apparently had only a fifth-year program in mind at that time. While it would, of course, have been logical to delay putting a sixth-year course into effect until students had had time to complete the fifth-year, the superintendent, in his correspondence with officials of the University of Chicago, talked about merely preparing students to enter the University in the sophomore year. Ostensibly at least, his principal purpose in writing to Harper on June 14, 1904, was to solicit the University's help in appointing a faculty member who would enhance the value of "a post graduate year that will be accepted by the colleges as equivalent to the freshman work" (1:71).

Why Superintendent Hedgepeth delayed opening negotiations with the University of Chicago until just a few months before the beginning of the 1904-1905 school year,

1. The first part of the document is a letter from the President of the United States to the Congress, dated January 3, 1863.

2. The second part is a report from the Secretary of the Treasury, dated January 10, 1863.

3. The third part is a report from the Secretary of the Interior, dated January 10, 1863.

4. The fourth part is a report from the Secretary of the Navy, dated January 10, 1863.

5. The fifth part is a report from the Secretary of the War, dated January 10, 1863.

6. The sixth part is a report from the Secretary of the State, dated January 10, 1863.

7. The seventh part is a report from the Secretary of the War, dated January 10, 1863.

8. The eighth part is a report from the Secretary of the Navy, dated January 10, 1863.

9. The ninth part is a report from the Secretary of the Interior, dated January 10, 1863.

10. The tenth part is a report from the Secretary of the Treasury, dated January 10, 1863.

11. The eleventh part is a report from the Secretary of the War, dated January 10, 1863.

12. The twelfth part is a report from the Secretary of the State, dated January 10, 1863.

13. The thirteenth part is a report from the Secretary of the War, dated January 10, 1863.

14. The fourteenth part is a report from the Secretary of the Navy, dated January 10, 1863.

when he apparently was determined to put the first postgraduate program into effect, is difficult to answer. A possible explanation is that it was not until the middle of June that he could be sure that the new building would be completed and ready for occupancy in September. Possibly, too, he anticipated little difficulty from the University in conducting an evaluation and in reaching an agreement. The following letter, written by Superintendent Hedgepeth to Professor H. E. Slaughter, the University of Chicago official in charge of teacher recommendations, contains what might be construed a matter of urgency if not a degree of pressure to reach an agreement:

You state that President Harper will write me shortly, with reference to our request. We sincerely hope that such arrangements can be made as will induce a number of young people to attempt the attainment of a college course. If they can do one year's work here and then go to Chicago and finish in three years, we could send you quite a number of students. We have the building, the equipment, the field. We are trying to collect a strong faculty and we sincerely hope that arrangements may be made along the lines suggested. If you have any suggestions along the line, we will consider it a favor, should you write concerning them. If this plan is inaugurated it will necessitate an early announcement (1:72).

While the last line implies that Superintendent Hedgepeth wished to initiate the extended program with the University's approval, there are reasons to believe that, despite the lateness of the hour, the fifth-year course would be started in the Fall of 1904 even if action was not immediately forthcoming from Chicago. While

negotiations had not proceeded very far by August 10, 1904, it was on that date that Superintendent Hedgepeth, illustrating the immediacy of the program as well as showing that by then he had included a sixth-year of postgraduate work in his plan, published the following notice in the Goshen Daily News-Times:

The Board of Education wishes to announce that beginning with the present school year, the Goshen High School will offer a post-graduate course that shall be equivalent to and accredited as one year's work in the best colleges and universities.

The work is done under the direct authority and supervision of the University of Chicago, which insures the character and standard of the work to be maintained. [This statement, undoubtedly, assumes favorable action on the pending request. At this time, however, more than likely there were no real assurances that the University of Chicago would honor the Goshen postgraduate program.]

The course will be open to all graduates of Goshen High School or of other schools of equal standing, provided the candidates have done the work required for college entrance.

If sufficient numbers shall enroll for the first year's work, the course will be extended to cover two years. [In effect, this extension to a six-year program did not take place until the 1906-1907 school year.]

This is the most radical departure from old lines that has been undertaken by high schools and the selection of Goshen High School by the University is a signal honor. [The term "selection" here, perhaps, should be interpreted as "future" acceptance.]

A tuition fee of \$30 for the nine months will be charged. This will enable the department to be conducted without extra expense [to the taxpayers]. . . .

Patrons and pupils who are interested are requested to confer with the Superintendent or Principal of the High School between the 15th of August and the 1st of September.

.

Early applications for admission to the post-graduate courses will greatly facilitate matters.

By Order of the Board
Victor Hedgepeth, Supt. (1:74).

One cannot help asking the question: Why was Superintendent Hedgepeth in such a hurry? The only prior evidence he had that there might be a demand for the program was the fact that in the previous three years a dozen graduates had returned to the high school for additional work. Would it not have been much more prudent to have proceeded in a less hasty manner and to have felt out the public opinion toward his proposal before rushing the program into effect just a month after its first announcement?

According to Adams, Hedgepeth had his announcement printed in the Goshen Daily News-Times thirteen consecutive times after its first appearance (1:74). Yet, what was apparently a somewhat less than enthusiastic response failed to divert him from his purpose. All the costly publicity garnered for the Fall of 1904 one-year postgraduate course only seven students from the 1904 graduating class (12:20). Despite this small enrollment and the large

amount of print that was needed to secure it (exactly two announcements per student), Superintendent Hedgepeth, claiming (no doubt with good justification) that the small enrollment was the result of the late announcement of the plan (12:20) never lost faith in the idea.

Apparently, however, the poor initial response raised a few questions regarding community acceptance of the plan in the minds of President Harper and other University of Chicago officials then processing the request of the Goshen school officials for approval of the extended program. At any rate, on November 5, 1904, or after the program had already been started, the superintendent mailed copies of the following letter to some of Goshen's "leading citizens and patrons" (12:21):

Goshen, Ind., November 5, 1904

Dear Sir:--The University of Chicago desires expressions from the leading citizens in approval, or disapproval, of the Goshen six-year high-school plan.

The plan enables parents to keep their children at home an additional year or two at the saving of college expenses and at no loss of time, the colleges recognizing such work as equivalent to the corresponding work done in residence.

The charge of a tuition fee of \$30 per year from those pursuing the postgraduate work covers all additional expenses without any increase whatever in taxation.

An early reply will oblige.

Victor W. B. Hedgepeth (12:21).

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What the results of this "survey" were cannot be known, unfortunately. They were later generalized very broadly as a "cordial reception of the plan, both by the citizens and pupils" (12:21). That there were favorable replies will be made clear from evidence presented in another part of the analysis but there is no way of knowing the number of responses, their sources, or any contrary expressions received.

Nevertheless, when, at the Autumn 1904 University of Chicago Conference, Superintendent Hedgepeth read a paper entitled "The Six-Year High-School Plan at Goshen, Ind.," this paper later appearing in the January 1905 issue of The School Review (12:19-22), he stated that "the six years' work offered by the Goshen High School [what was described was actually a plan for a six-year high school rather than an existing program] is the result of a real demand, rather than an experiment based on an academic discussion as to the advisability of such an extension" (12:19). Some of the significant portions of this report are quoted below with interpretative comments:

During the past few years a considerable number of the students have returned, in the year following graduation, to do work in the undergraduate courses (12:19). [As has been noted already, these included 12 students over a period of 3 years, or an average of 4 per year.]

Recently, in order that the so-called gap between the grades and the high school might be properly bridged, we have extended the departmental plan to include the seventh and eighth grades (12:20). [This

differs from Point 1 of the Harper "Proposition," that is, the extension of secondary education downward to include the eighth grade. Other than the extension upward which we later term the "junior college" no evidence was found that the other three points of the Harper proposition were attempted at Goshen.]

. . . [O]ur high school enrolls about 350 . . . (12:20). [This figure is undoubtedly slightly high. The Minutes of September 8, 1908, list an enrollment of 314 in the high school along with a comment "largest ever" (3).]

. . . [W]e have annually a graduating class of from 30 to 40. . . .

A careful questioning of this year's [1904-1905] class of 42 shows that 15 expect to go to college, and 20 expect to avail themselves of the advanced work offered by the high school (12:20). [The results of this informal survey were misleading. Enrollment of 20 was not reached in any of the years the postgraduate program was in existence.]

In view of the cordial reception of the proposed plan, both by the citizens and the pupils, the board of education voted to extend the course to two full years. . . . (12:21). [While at this time the board may have had intentions to extend the program to include a sixth year, a formal vote did not take place until May 7, 1906 (3).]

. . . [D]esiring to have this work [the six-year program] accepted by the University of Chicago, [the board] informed President Harper of their plan in a communication of which the following is a copy:

"President W. R. Harper
"The University of Chicago

"Dear Sir:--We wish to assure you that the institution of the six-year high-school plan in Goshen is permanent,

THE
FEDERAL BUREAU OF INVESTIGATION
UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE
WASHINGTON, D. C. 20535

TO : DIRECTOR, FBI (100-442100)
FROM : SAC, NEW YORK (100-100000)
SUBJECT: [REDACTED]

RE: NEW YORK TELETYPE TO BUREAU, 1/11/68.

Enclosed for the Bureau are two copies of a letterhead memorandum (LHM) dated and captioned as above. The LHM contains information received from [REDACTED] regarding the activities of [REDACTED] in New York City.

The LHM also contains information regarding the activities of [REDACTED] in New York City, and the activities of [REDACTED] in New York City.

Very truly yours,
[REDACTED]
Special Agent in Charge

Enclosure
[REDACTED]
[REDACTED]

and has the entire support of the board of education, and the hearty approval and patronage of the citizens. We wish to state, further, that we will do all we can toward placing the last two years' work on such a plane as will entitle pupils to college recognition.

"Very truly yours,

"Joseph H. Lesh,

"Frank Kelly,

"George B. Slate,

"Board of Education"

(12:21)

Major External Influences

At the same time, external influences were also important. Among those which deserve some emphasis are the following:

(1) Premature recognition and approval of the Goshen postgraduate proposal by President Harper and other officials of the University of Chicago.

(2) The propagandizing of the proposal by the Goshen Daily News-Times.

(3) Apathy of the Goshen citizens and of State officials in challenging the legality of the proposal.

Like the internal forces, these influences were positive in the sense that they aided Superintendent Hedgepeth in getting the extended high school started but negative in that they were probably inversely related to the ultimate success of the program. It is difficult,



therefore, to label them as being either strictly positive or strictly negative.

With respect to the first point, the University of Chicago's actions relative to the Goshen plan are somewhat difficult to understand and unfortunately the records which would clarify some points have apparently been destroyed. The big unanswered question is why President Harper, who at first was most reluctant to encourage Superintendent Hedgepeth in the carrying out of his plan, shortly thereafter apparently became the major outside influence urging University support of it.

The first reply that President Harper gave to Superintendent Hedgepeth's June 14, 1904, letter was anything but enthusiastic. Waiting until June 26 to answer it, Harper wrote as follows:

June 25, 1904

Your letter of June 14 was duly received. I have talked the matter over with some of our gentlemen. We shall be glad to do all we can to help you in the matter of appointment. I am raising the question in my mind whether you would not do better at first to strengthen your regular work before undertaking the postgraduate work too fully. The students who have come from Goshen have, as I understand it, been somewhat heavily conditioned. Have you considered this matter? (1:72).

Other University of Chicago officials, too, were a little uneasy about lending their support to Hedgepeth's plan to rush into an extended program. Two of them who

The first part of the paper is devoted to a discussion of the
theoretical aspects of the problem. It is shown that the
problem is equivalent to a problem in the theory of
differential equations. The second part of the paper is
devoted to a discussion of the numerical aspects of the
problem. It is shown that the problem can be solved
numerically by using the method of finite differences.
The third part of the paper is devoted to a discussion of
the results of the numerical calculations. It is shown that
the results are in good agreement with the theoretical
results. The fourth part of the paper is devoted to a
discussion of the conclusions of the paper. It is shown
that the problem can be solved numerically by using the
method of finite differences.



The results of the numerical calculations are shown in the
figure. It is shown that the results are in good
agreement with the theoretical results. The results are
shown in the figure. It is shown that the results are
in good agreement with the theoretical results.

early evaluated the proposal were Professor H. E. Slaught, in charge of teacher recommendations, and Dean Frank J. Miller, one of the examiners on the Board of Affiliations and Relations. Both of them, according to records studied by Adams, were of the firm opinion that the University of Chicago should carefully refrain from giving any endorsement to the Goshen program until after the University had been given a chance to observe the program in actual operation. Dean Miller made this opinion known to President Harper, who, after Professor Slaught had received another June 23 letter (this letter is not extant) from Superintendent Hedgepeth, wrote Hedgepeth as follows:

July 15, 1904

Your letter of June 23rd [evidently the letter that had been addressed to Mr. Slaught] [sic] crossed my letter of June 25th. We are anxious to assist you in every possible way and I think we shall be able to render some efficient help. At the same time I should like very much to have you consider the questions suggested in my recent letter (1:73).

While, as has been noted, Hedgepeth soon afterwards announced the initiation of the program, Harper apparently remained skeptical until at least November. It was during this month, it will be recalled, that Hedgepeth received a request from President Harper for "expressions from the leading citizens in approval, or disapproval, of the Goshen six-year high-school plan" (12:21). Shortly

thereafter, however, Harper became satisfied that the Goshen idea was a good one. According to Adams, "it is evident that Harper frequently appeared before the various Boards of the University, in person, to urge that the agreement [with the Goshen school] be ratified. His active interest in the junior college is manifest at all points" (1:73). The only possible inference is that the letters of approval which Hedgepeth solicited from leading citizens caused Harper himself to become optimistic about the possible success of the program.

After Harper had become convinced of the idea, events moved swiftly. One of the remarkable things is that the ordinarily cautious University of Chicago approved what was presented to delegates as an actual program (not a plan) without a University official ever having visited the new high school or having inspected the extended fifth-year program. The Minutes of The Board of University Relations, Examiners, for January 20, 1905, 4:00 p.m. session, read as follows:

The request of the Goshen, Ind., High School was presented by Mr. Miller. The Goshen school has established a six year course [note the wording] and asks the Board to accept the work of the last two years for advanced standing. Letters were read from citizens of Goshen and patrons of the school, commending in high terms the new plan and the work the school is doing. Mr. Miller read a proposed agreement between the University and the Goshen High School for co-operation. It was voted that co-operation with the Goshen High School on the terms laid down be accepted (7).

1. The first part of the report discusses the general situation of the country and the progress of the work in the various departments. It also mentions the results of the recent elections and the state of the treasury.

2. The second part contains a detailed account of the measures taken to improve the administration and the justice system. It also mentions the progress of the public works and the state of the education system.

3. The third part discusses the financial situation of the country and the measures taken to improve the revenue and reduce the expenditure. It also mentions the state of the public debt and the progress of the financial reforms.

4. The fourth part contains a detailed account of the measures taken to improve the social conditions and the welfare of the people. It also mentions the progress of the public health and the state of the labor market.

5. The fifth part discusses the foreign relations of the country and the progress of the diplomatic work. It also mentions the state of the international trade and the progress of the international relations.

6. The sixth part contains a detailed account of the measures taken to improve the military and the defense of the country. It also mentions the state of the armed forces and the progress of the military reforms.

7. The seventh part discusses the progress of the various departments and the results of the work done during the year. It also mentions the state of the public opinion and the progress of the political reforms.

8. The eighth part contains a detailed account of the measures taken to improve the economy and the progress of the industrial and commercial activities. It also mentions the state of the public finance and the progress of the economic reforms.

9. The ninth part discusses the progress of the various departments and the results of the work done during the year. It also mentions the state of the public opinion and the progress of the political reforms.

One hour later, at the 5:00 p.m. session of the Board of University Relations, Delegates:

Mr. Miller presented the articles of co-operation with Goshen High School, already presented to the Board of Examiners and approved by them and expressing the desire of the Examiners that the Delegates might take concurrent action. Voted approval. No notice of this action is to be sent to the school until it has been approved by the University Council and Senate (6).

Five days later, on January 25, 1905, Dean Miller sent a copy of the agreement to the University Recorder noting that "It was understood that the Goshen High School has established [again, note the wording] a six year high school" (13:1). Dean Miller then went on to note the terms of the agreement which are reproduced below (13:1-3).

1. Subjects and Prerequisites . . . Latin 4, 5, and 6, based upon the full four units of secondary school Latin.

Mathematics 1, 2, 3, based upon the full three units of secondary mathematics.

English 1, 3, and 4, based upon the four year course in secondary English (or on three year course?) [sic].

History 1, 2, based upon one unit in Ancient History.

German 5, 6, . . . [sic] based upon two units of elementary German.

Chemistry, based upon one unit of Chemistry.

THE HISTORY OF THE CITY OF BOSTON

FROM THE FIRST SETTLEMENT
TO THE PRESENT TIME
BY
JOHN H. COLEMAN

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Physics, based upon one unit of Physics.

These subjects must be pursued strictly as post-graduate studies, that is, only by students who have gained 15 units of admission credit according to the Chicago requirements. The courses must be equivalent in amount and character to the corresponding courses in the University.

2. Number of Studies: The student may not pursue more than three studies in any given quarter.

3. Teachers: (a) Each teacher giving instruction in collegiate work must be approved by that department of the University in which his work is to be credited. (b) His work in the undergraduate department should be so decreased that he may give ample attention to his collegiate work.

4. Tests: (a) The work shall be visited from time to time by representatives of the departments concerned at the expense of the school. (b) At the end of each quarter's course a final examination shall be prepared by the teacher which shall be sent to the University for the approval of the proper departments before it is sent to the pupils. (c) The examination papers when written shall be sent to the University to be read and graded by departmental readers at the expense of the school.

5. A proposed program of two years' postgraduate study for the Goshen High School?⁵

Autumn	Winter	Spring	Autumn	Winter	Spring
Latin 4	German	Latin 5	Chemistry	Chem.	Chem.
Math	Math	Math	German	Latin 6	Phys.?[sic]
English 1	Engl. 40	German	Engl. 3	Med. Hist.	Mod. Hist.

⁵This tabulation is reproduced exactly as it appears in the source material cited.



Evidently, this agreement had been prepared prior to the middle of November, 1904. It parallels almost word for word Superintendent Hedgepeth's January, 1905, published article representing the paper previously read at the 1904 Autumn Conference in November 1904. Apparently Superintendent Hedgepeth had some assurance, unofficial though it may have been, that the proposed plan would be accepted by University of Chicago officials at a later date.

In addition to receiving the post hoc support of the University of Chicago, the plan was aided to a considerable degree by the propagandizing efforts of the local newspaper, the Goshen Daily News-Times, a second external influence. It has already been noted that this paper carried the superintendent's announcement a total of 14 times. Possibly the Board paid the standard rates for these announcements but even if this were true the editor donated considerable free publicity. When the first announcement appeared, the editor, in a side story, noted that:

The announcement made by Superintendent Hedgepeth in another column means more to Goshen than any other step taken in the marvelous educational work because the high school here is accorded an honor that no other school has ever been given by the great University, which thus shows its confidence in the work that is now being done under Superintendent Hedgepeth.

It will no longer be necessary for the Goshen citizen who will send his son or daughter to college to go to the great expense that has been usual with

the first year's work, but now the student may remain in Goshen and do that work and be ready to start in on the second year's studies. It will bring people to Goshen. It will be a new influence to lead cultured and ambitious people to the city. It will be one of the greatest forces in Goshen's behalf in the growth to come (11:August 10, 1904, p. 1).

For the third external influence, it is notable that neither any of Goshen's citizens nor county or state educational officials raised any question as to the legality of the Goshen experiment. Such a question could easily have been raised for Indiana's Free School Law of 1852 was quite explicit on the point that the public schools were to be free and that no tuition could be charged in them (9:50). Yet this legal point gave little concern to the Goshen administration. In his 1904 talk Superintendent Hedgepeth noted that:

The ways and means for meeting the extra expense incurred in the addition of two years' work to the curriculum, we obtain, partly, by charging an individual tuition fee of \$30. With us this is large enough to avoid extra taxes [yet the 7 students enrolling in 1904 would have meant only \$210, while the agreement with the University required that the school stand the cost of inspections and of grading papers and that it also decrease the work of teachers in the undergraduate courses so that they might "give ample attention" to collegiate work] (13:2). In other communities, of course, the fee will be more or less. As long as the institution of these extra courses does not operate to raise the tax levy, the most indifferent citizen cannot object, even though the law does not provide for the charging of fees in the public free schools (12:20).

To conclude the analysis of the first period, it is clear that a combination of external and internal influences interacting with one another help to explain why the Goshen institution was initiated in the manner that it was. If one single influence were to be stressed, however, it would doubtlessly be the enthusiasm, unrealistic and uncritical as it may have been, of Superintendent Hedgepeth. In many important respects he was almost directly the opposite from J. Stanley Brown.

The Period of Early Enthusiasm and Expansion

1905 and 1906

The second recognizable period of the developmental period is the one of early enthusiasm and expansion during 1905 and 1906. Interacting influences which help explain why the original plan was persisted in and why it was expanded to include a sixth-year program are believed to be:

(1) Favorable publicity given to the program as a result of a visit and laudatory report by a representative of the University of Chicago.

(2) A notable increase in postgraduate enrollment during the 1906-1907 school year.

(3) A somewhat premature judgment by the University of Chicago that by the start of the 1906-1907 school year the extended high school had proved its worth and had successfully survived the experimental period.

The visit paid to the school in May 1905, by Dean F. J. Miller of the University of Chicago was doubtlessly a big boost to the morale of the superintendent and the Board. Continuing to serve as an important external influence for promoting the postgraduate idea, the local editor announced the scheduled visit in the May 17, 1905, issue of the Goshen Daily News-Times as follows:

Frank J. Miller, Dean of Affiliations of Chicago University, will lecture to the citizens of Goshen at the High School Assembly Room, Thursday evening, on some of the problems of modern education. Since Goshen High School is the first one in America to receive the high recognition accorded by the great university, it will be a matter of deep interest to the citizens of the city and the patrons of the school to hear his message. President Harper has said that he considers Goshen the ideal place for making the experiment of more immediate co-operation of schools and colleges and has stated that no other school in the nation need apply because the best fitted and best supported high school has been selected and the verdict is to be obtained from Goshen alone (11:May 17, 1905).

Despite the editor's enthusiasm, many Goshen citizens apparently were unimpressed for two days later after the meeting had taken place the editor, in the issue of May 19, 1905, regretted that only a "fair-sized" crowd had showed up "to hear the excellent advice of one of the greatest educational factors in the American system" (11). The story went on to note, in a way that was something less than accurate, that:

The first part of the paper discusses the importance of the study of the history of the United States. It is argued that the study of history is essential for a full understanding of the present and for the development of a sense of national identity. The author then discusses the role of the federal government in the development of the United States, and the importance of the federal government in the protection of the rights of the states.

The second part of the paper discusses the role of the federal government in the development of the United States. It is argued that the federal government has played a central role in the development of the United States, and that the federal government has been responsible for the protection of the rights of the states. The author then discusses the importance of the federal government in the development of the United States, and the role of the federal government in the protection of the rights of the states.

The third part of the paper discusses the role of the federal government in the development of the United States. It is argued that the federal government has played a central role in the development of the United States, and that the federal government has been responsible for the protection of the rights of the states. The author then discusses the importance of the federal government in the development of the United States, and the role of the federal government in the protection of the rights of the states.

Dr. Miller in a few preliminary remarks paid a high tribute to the Goshen schools. His visit was devoted mainly to a careful inspection of the class work and a resume of the collegiate course, recently adopted.

The plan of adding the postgraduate course to the Goshen High School that includes the regular curriculum of studies given in the first and second years' college course originated with Mr. Hedgepeth and when the scheme was proposed to the Chicago University it met with instant approval and flattering encouragement. The idea is to substitute a two-year postgraduate high school course for the first two years of college course, thus giving the high school pupils an opportunity to do college work at home and enabling them to enter the University credited with the work accomplished. . . .

The Goshen Schools are so in advance of most public schools that the University considers Goshen an experiment station. With its enrollment, fine buildings, so completely equipped, and its progressive school board and corps of efficient teachers, the conditions were ideal and the first year's successful work has proved the feasibility of the plan. Dr. Miller could not speak in higher praises of the success of the work than he did. It is indeed a rare compliment to the Goshen School System and the intelligent citizen body, that Goshen is the first and only High School given the opportunity by any college or university in the United States. Dr. Miller was anxious to impress the importance of the new course upon the audience and devoted considerable time to a discussion of the question which he denominated the greatest educational experiment now in American schools (11:May 19, 1905).

Despite this high praise, the Board did not, for some reason, see fit to institute the sixth-year program during the school year 1905-1906. Probably the small



number of students completing the 1904-1905 first year was the biggest factor. Barring students who had done a freshman year outside Goshen, these students, of course, would have been the only source of enrollment for a 1905-1906 sixth year.

By the Spring of 1906, however, it apparently was evident that a sixth-year course during the 1906-1907 school year would be justified. On May 7, 1906, Board Member George B. Slate, seconded by Mr. Joseph H. Lesh, proposed that the Board add a sixth year to the high school (3:May 7, 1906). Ten days later,

After consideration and general discussion on the administration of the High School business for the coming year, with respect to the recent orders of the Board covering the extension of the course through the sixth year, it was decided that adjustment could be best made by paying a visit to the University of Chicago for a personal interview, with the examiners in charge of the several departments. As a result it was ordered that the supt. and as many members of the Board as could find it convenient to go, should visit the University on Monday, May 21, to determine what changes, if necessary, should be made in the present administration of the High School and what additional regulations and requirements would be imposed by the University under our agreement with them (3:May 17, 1906).

This proposal was carried out. When the Board met again on May 31, 1906, Superintendent Hedgepeth reported that, along with Mr. George B. Slate and Dr. W. A. Vallette, he had visited the University of Chicago. After talks with Dean F. J. Miller and the heads of several University

1. The first part of the paper discusses the importance of the study and the objectives of the research. It also provides a brief overview of the methodology used in the study.

2. The second part of the paper presents the results of the study. It includes a detailed analysis of the data collected and a discussion of the findings. The results show that there is a significant correlation between the variables studied.



3. The third part of the paper discusses the implications of the findings and the conclusions drawn from the study. It also provides a brief summary of the key points discussed in the paper.

departments, the visitors had been informed that the Goshen High School was authorized to,

. . . [A]dd to its course of study for credit in the University of Chicago one year's work in History, one year in Chemistry, one year's work in Biology, and one quarter's work in Physics, which additions make the subjects, offered for advanced work at the present time, cover one year's work in the following subjects: Latin, English, German, History, Mathematics, Chemistry, Biology, together with one quarter's work in Physics and one additional quarter's work in Analytic Geometry (3:May 31, 1906).

Superintendent Hedgepeth and the Board did have some cause to be optimistic when the new school year began. On September 13, 1906, the superintendent reported that there were seventeen students attending the postgraduate school in the departments of mathematics, English, Latin, history, and chemistry (3:September 13, 1906). Since the last two departments represented second-year studies, it is apparent that the sixth-year program was being used.

Apparently, the 1906-1907 postgraduate enrollment reported in the Minutes is the largest that the extended high school ever attracted. Reviewing the past history of the extended high school in June 1909, a writer for the commencement issue of The Crimson (a student publication of the Goshen High School) stated that: "A course of six subjects comprising two years' University work⁶

⁶These details are not completely accurate, as noted elsewhere in this chapter.

was laid out . . . five years ago and the work has been pursued each year since by classes ranging in number from 7 to 14" (18:37). The discrepancy between the report of the superintendent and that of the student writer may stem from either simple errors in reporting or from three students dropping out during the year.

The personal rewards for continuing with one of the pioneering developments in the junior college movement apparently were insufficient to encourage Superintendent Hedgepeth to retain his leadership. Just as the sixth-year program was getting underway, the Board met in a special session on September 24, 1906, which Superintendent Hegepeth called "for the purpose of formally tending his resignation" (3). In explaining his actions, Hedgepeth stated that they stemmed from neither "dissent nor dissatisfaction" (3), but rather from the fact that he was "in possession of offers of fair remuneration and exceptional opportunity" (3). He requested that the Board accept his resignation at once⁷ rather than at the end of the school year just started. He also recommended at this meeting that the position of superintendent be given to Miss Lillian E. Michael, then serving as principal of the high school, "because of her familiarity with the system" (3).

⁷Superintendent Hedgepeth's intentions of leaving the Goshen schools had been reported in the September 1, 1906 issue of the Goshen Daily News-Times (11) some three weeks prior to his request at the Board meeting on September 24, 1906.

1. The first part of the document discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all transactions and activities. It emphasizes the need for transparency and accountability in financial reporting.

2. The second part of the document outlines the various methods and techniques used to collect and analyze data. It includes a detailed description of the experimental procedures and the statistical analysis performed.

3. The third part of the document presents the results of the study. It includes a series of tables and graphs that illustrate the findings of the research. The data shows a clear trend of increasing activity over time.

4. The fourth part of the document discusses the implications of the findings. It suggests that the results have significant implications for the field of study and may lead to further research in this area.

5. The fifth part of the document provides a conclusion and a summary of the key findings. It reiterates the importance of accurate record-keeping and the need for ongoing research in this field.

6. The sixth part of the document includes a list of references and a bibliography. It cites various sources that have been consulted during the research process.

7. The seventh part of the document contains a list of appendices and supplementary materials. These include additional data, charts, and documents that provide further detail on the study.

8. The eighth part of the document includes a list of figures and tables. These are numbered and labeled to correspond with the text and provide a visual representation of the data.

9. The ninth part of the document contains a list of footnotes and endnotes. These provide additional information and clarification on specific points mentioned in the text.

10. The tenth part of the document includes a list of acknowledgments and a thank you note. It expresses gratitude to the individuals and organizations that have supported the research.

While action was delayed for one day, the Board accepted Hedgepeth's resignation at a meeting on September 25, 1906, to be effective at the end of the month. The Board imposed the conditions, however, that Hedgepeth was to visit the University of Chicago "for the purpose of the continuance of the existing affiliation" and also to agree to "further give his services to the Board, or the new administration, or the schools in general, if at any time they might be required" (3). Apparently, the very next day a hasty trip to Chicago was made for on September 29, 1906, at the third Board meeting held in four days, Superintendent Hedgepeth reported that his proposal for Miss Michael taking over the superintendency had "been most heartily approved by Dean Miller and others at the University of Chicago" (3). At the same time he read to the Board what must have been a morale-boosting letter from Dean Miller. This letter, dated September 26, 1906, is reproduced as follows:

To the Board of Education
Goshen, Indiana

Dear Sirs:

Two years ago the University of Chicago received a proposition from you, through your superintendent of schools, Mr. Hedgepeth, to recognize postgraduate work, which you proposed to offer in your high school, for credit in the Junior Colleges of the University. This proposition was referred by the University to me as Dean of Affiliations.

The first of these is the fact that the
government has been unable to
obtain the necessary funds to
carry out its policy. This is due
to the fact that the government
has been unable to raise the
necessary funds from the public.
The second is the fact that the
government has been unable to
obtain the necessary funds to
carry out its policy. This is due
to the fact that the government
has been unable to raise the
necessary funds from the public.

The third is the fact that the
government has been unable to
obtain the necessary funds to
carry out its policy. This is due
to the fact that the government
has been unable to raise the
necessary funds from the public.

After careful inspection of your curriculum and equipment in the departments whose work you proposed to offer, by representatives of the corresponding departments in the University, your proposition was recommended by me to the Board of Affiliations, and accepted by them. You therefore established a six-year high school in your city covering the usual four-year high school course, with a two years' college course super-added, being probably the first community in this country to take this step.

Such action entitled Goshen to the highest praise from those who are interested in the spread of higher education, and makes your school a model, which has already attracted widespread attention. During the past two years I have given much personal attention to the working out of the plans in frequent visits to the school and in conferences with the superintendent and principal, and with members of the Board.

I can say now, that whereas the University ratified your plan and promised to accept your students with credit for advanced standing, somewhat tentatively, and in the spirit of investigation, being vitally interested itself in the six-year high-school plan, the work seems to have progressed beyond the experimental stage, and to have demonstrated the wisdom of your action in establishing a high school college [this is the nearest characterization to a junior college that is given to the Goshen institution in the available source materials]. Already more than a score of your graduates have received a record of credit with us, for work done in your postgraduate school, and this will be counted toward a bachelor's degree in this University, whenever they become matriculated students here.

Interested as I have been in the Goshen schools, and especially in the six-year high school, I learn with much regret from a late issue of the Goshen News-Times of Mr. Hedgepeth's resignation from the office of the superintendency. His zeal for the success of the plan has long been known to me. His faith in the

work and his untiring efforts in its promotion, have been a large element in its success and it is with much personal regret that I see him retire from the active work as an educator.

At the same time, I wish to congratulate you upon your selection of Miss Michael as superintendent. Her admirable administration of the high school as principal and her zealous cooperation in the high school extension plan, ensure that there will be no break in the progress of the school. So far as the University's attitude is concerned, we shall continue the same privileges and follow the work with the same interest under the new as under the old administration.

Yours sincerely,

F. J. Miller
Chicago University
(3:September 27, 1906)

A point to be recalled to mind is that when this laudatory and somewhat premature appraisal of the extended high school was written, President Harper no longer was alive--his death had occurred in the early part of January 1906. The fact that, as has been noted, President Harper had been a warm supporter of Hedgepeth's extended high school may have had some influence in causing Dean Miller to appraise the school in the somewhat unrealistic and premature way that he did.

At any rate, though the letter doubtlessly restored the confidence of the Board, the evaluation was premature. Shortly after the letter was read, the Goshen extended high school program entered the period of decline and ultimate abandonment.

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO
DEPARTMENT OF CHEMISTRY
530 SOUTH EAST ASIAN AVENUE
CHICAGO, ILLINOIS 60607-7070
TEL: 773/936-5000 FAX: 773/936-5001

RECEIVED
JAN 10 1997
FROM: [illegible]
SUBJECT: [illegible]
[illegible text follows]

[illegible text follows]

[illegible text follows]

[illegible text follows]

[illegible text follows]

The Period of Decline and Ultimate Abandonment,
1907-1911

As nearly as can be determined, the Goshen extended high school program came to an end in 1911 or at about the same time as the University of Chicago itself abandoned attempts to impose standards upon non-affiliated public schools. The Board Minutes for August 21, 1911, record Superintendent Mendenhall (the third superintendent associated with the program) reporting that there had been only two calls for the postgraduate work for the 1911-1912 school year and also record the Board concluding that it might be best to insert a notice in the local paper "to the effect that if enough students enrolled for the course, the work would go on as it had been, but if the number enrolled were not sufficient to warrant a successful continuance of the work, it would be dropped" (3). This proposal is the last mention of the extended high school course in the Minutes although there is evidence that in later years some postgraduate work of a high school level was offered in the Goshen High School (14).

The demise of the Goshen extended high school has never been adequately explained except in terms of broad generalities. In touching upon the school's termination, Eells contents himself with noting that it "was discontinued for local reasons" (10:13). This statement seems to be a close paraphrase of Angell's earlier (1915)

THE HISTORY OF THE CITY OF BOSTON

The history of the city of Boston is a subject of great interest and importance. It is a city of many centuries, and its history is a record of the growth and development of one of the most important cities in the world. The city has been the seat of many great events, and its history is a record of the progress of the human race. The city has been the home of many great men, and its history is a record of the achievements of the human mind. The city has been the center of many great movements, and its history is a record of the struggles of the human spirit. The city has been the birthplace of many great ideas, and its history is a record of the progress of the human race. The city has been the home of many great men, and its history is a record of the achievements of the human mind. The city has been the center of many great movements, and its history is a record of the struggles of the human spirit. The city has been the birthplace of many great ideas, and its history is a record of the progress of the human race.

published comment⁸ to the effect that "many members of this Association will probably recall the similar experiment substantially contemporary with the Joliet plan which was launched at Goshen, Indiana, and which for purely local reasons has been discontinued" (2:290).

While the generalization "for local reasons" is accurate as far as it goes, it does not tell the complete story. There were both external and internal influences which help to explain the decline and termination of the program.

Major External Influences

It seems abundantly true that the external forces were more important than internal influences. Between 1907 and 1911 a combination of negative external forces, apparently in no way offset by any major positive influences of either an external⁹ or an internal nature,

⁸This comment makes it certain that by May, 1915, at least, the Goshen extended high school program had been terminated. It also suggests that the actual termination took place some years earlier so that the date 1911 seems to be reasonably valid as marking the end of the extended program.

⁹An exception would be the continuing interest and support during at least the first year of the period under study of Dean Miller of the University of Chicago. The Minutes of the Board of Education note that Dean Miller accepted the Board's invitation to be the commencement speaker in the Spring of 1907 (3:April 30, 1907), although the next year the Board decided to "have an old-fashioned Commencement" with speeches given only by the pupils themselves (3:April 25, 1908).

seem to have been primarily responsible for the ultimate death of the program. This combination of negative external influence includes the following:

(1) Diminished and finally almost non-existent demand for the extended program based mainly upon local competition from the newly organized Goshen College which began enrolling students in 1903.

(2) An Indiana legal decision expressly prohibiting the charging of tuition in the free public schools for the support of college-level postgraduate courses.

(3) Substitution of the Goshen College for the extended high school program as a major source of community pride.

(4) The growing discouragement at the University of Chicago with the cooperative program which began to make itself felt after President Harper's death early in 1906.

By itself, given Goshen's relatively small population, the first influence probably would have been sufficient to have spelled the doom of the extended program. The establishment of Goshen College on a ten-acre site on the southern outskirts of the city--a site which was purchased in 1901 after the decision had been made to move the college from its former location in Elkhart, 11 miles from Goshen (23:264-266)--was especially important because this institution was maintained by the

Mennonite sect¹⁰ to which large numbers of Goshen people belonged.

In this day of surveys and projections, it seems almost unbelievable that Superintendent Hedgepeth, when he promoted the extended high school program in 1904, overlooked completely the competition he faced from Goshen College which was "open on equal terms to all persons of good moral character who had an aim in life and who enter their work with seriousness" (23:264). Any planner engaged in realistic prediction rather than in wishful thinking would have seen the institution, which enrolled 77 regular students during its first year of operation in 1903, as a very serious obstacle to a successful extended high school course. Charging a tuition of only \$40 for three terms (a year's program of studies) if the fee were paid in advance, the Goshen College offered: (1) a four-year academy, (2) a two-year Classical and Scientific College Curricula, (3) a one- and a two-year normal program, and (4) a four-year course, which included two years of high school work and which led to a Ph.B. degree for those who wished to select Bible as the major subject (8:12). In 1908 the two-year college program of Goshen College was extended to cover four years. The first bachelor's degree was awarded in 1910. Apparently the only advantages

¹⁰At this time the Mennonites were closely similar to the present-day Amish. They stressed a simple life and avoided much of what is generally known as "progress" (14).

which the extended program of the public high school could have held out to Goshen students would have been a slightly lower tuition fee of \$30 for three terms (the school year) and the prestige of being associated with the University of Chicago.

There seems to be little doubt that Goshen College did, in fact, adversely affect enrollment in the extended program. In 1908, according to records provided for inspection by Mr. Nelson Springer, Curator of the Mennonite Historical Library of Goshen College, there were enrolled in Goshen College ten students with Goshen addresses and of these only four appear to have been Mennonites according to their names (15). At the same time, enrollment in the Goshen High School postgraduate program was lagging for a special report appearing in the 1909 commencement issue of The Crimson--a report which may well have been a desperate attempt to revive the postgraduate school--notes that:

It should be a matter of local pride to maintain this advanced course, and this cannot be done unless students present themselves for the work. Strangers visiting the town invariably mention this course as the most profitable educational advantage a town can possess and learn with surprise that some of our own people do not appreciate it (18:37).

There is some evidence that for the Goshen people the Mennonite college rather than the extended high school program had become the main source of community pride. Moreover, it must have been apparent to many at this time

that the extended high school, continuing as it did to charge a \$30 tuition (18:37), was being maintained in defiance of Indiana law for a 1906 ruling by the State's Attorney General had made it illegal for high schools to charge tuition to support postgraduate work. At any rate, at about the same time Superintendent Hedgepeth left, the editor of the Goshen Daily News-Times, formerly a big booster of the extended program, began to emphasize the importance of the competitive institution, Goshen College. In the September 29, 1906, edition, the editor wrote as follows:

Enthusiasm is running high at Goshen College because of the large attendance at the opening. One hundred and forty-two students have registered, and the number will reach 150 or more on Monday. If the same rate of increase continues, there will be 300 in attendance during the winter terms.

The large class of high school and academy graduates who have entered for the advanced work is perhaps the most encouraging feature of the present boom. The class includes representatives from Goshen, Mishawaka, New Paris, and other distant schools.

Attorney General Miller's ruling, making it illegal for the various high schools who have been giving postgraduate courses to charge tuition, will no doubt serve to strengthen this phase of the work in the local institution [that is, Goshen College, the assumption apparently being that Goshen High School could not continue to exist as a tuition-charging institution] (11:September 29, 1906).

The final external fact entering into the combination of adverse factors was the growing discouragement

with the cooperative program at the University of Chicago. While the direct effects on the Goshen program cannot be strictly documented, this discouragement and the concomitant termination of morale-building visits by Dean Miller and other officials were important in aggravating the ill health of the Goshen extended high school program.

Major Internal Influences

Along with the external negative influences, there were at least three major internal influences which help to bring about the eventual demise of the extended high school program at Goshen. These were:

(1) Non-continuity of leadership at the superintendent level.

(2) Overdependence of school leaders on the University of Chicago as the main outside support needed to assure the success of the program.

(3) Failure of the leadership to take adaptive action in response to changes in the external environment.

Non-continuity of leadership at the superintendent's level was probably very important. While Miss Lillian Michael, who took over the superintendency from Hedgepeth, appears to have been an effective administrator, it is doubtful whether she was as enthusiastic about the postgraduate program as Superintendent Hedgepeth seemed to be. Moreover, a few years after she became the superintendent, personal interests may have begun to overshadow

her professional interests for on April 22, 1909, she requested that the Board accept her resignation and release her from the remaining year of her two-year contract (3:April 22, 1909). The Board asked her to stay on another year, and, while she agreed to do so (and actually remained two years), she left the Goshen schools on August 1, 1911, "owing to her approaching marriage in the early fall to Judge James S. Drake of Goshen, judge of the 34th judicial circuit" (3:July 19, 1911). The new superintendent, Edgar A. Mendenhall, as has already been noted, made no serious attempt to revive the almost-defunct postgraduate program.

Probably another significant internal influence was the apparent overdependence of Both Mr. Hedgepeth and Miss Michael on the University of Chicago as the main outside support needed to assure the success of the program. This overdependence on the single institution stands in sharp contrast to J. Stanley Brown's efforts to make the Joliet postgraduate school acceptable by the State and other universities as well as by the University of Chicago.

With respect to the third influence, it is possible that an adaptive action on the part of Superintendent Michael might have helped to overcome, to some extent, negative external circumstances. For example, elimination of the \$30 tuition fee might have given the extended program a competitive edge over Goshen College with students of modest means and might, also, have increased community

respect for the extended program. As Prescott writes in his article on the "Law of Growth," internal influences can modify external circumstances.

The internal can be controlled to a large extent, and the external can be created by the proper action of the internal influences. If the internal influences are very strong, they naturally create more favorable external influences, sometimes called "good-will" (16:472).

It would appear, however, that the internal forces associated with Goshen College were strong, whereas those associated with the Goshen High School extended program were relatively weak. Consequently, while the Goshen College survived its experimental stage and about 1945 (17:3) entered the second rapid-growth stage, the extended high school program failed to survive.

In the next chapter, the search for major influences affecting the development of pioneer junior colleges is continued by tracing and explaining the developmental pattern of Crane Junior College at Chicago.



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CHAPTER V

CASE STUDY NO. 3: CRANE JUNIOR COLLEGE

The third junior college studied, Crane Junior College, differs from the institutions both at Joliet and Goshen in three important ways. First, whereas the junior college program at Joliet originated in a city of medium size and that of Goshen in a town of small size, Crane Junior College came into being in Chicago, second largest city of the United States. Secondly, Crane Junior College originated during the latter half of the macro-experimental period defined in Chapter II thus being less of a pioneer in the high school extension movement than was either Joliet or Goshen. Finally, while Joliet survived and Goshen simply withered and died, Crane came to its end through a formal and highly controversial action by the Chicago Board of Education. Although branches of a reorganized Chicago City Junior College were later established at three locations in Chicago, a junior college program at Crane Technical High School itself was not reinstituted until 1954.

At the present time, a Crane Branch of Chicago City Junior College is in operation, but, for the purpose of the present analysis, the assumption is made that the former Crane Junior College was different in many ways from either the reorganized system of branch junior

colleges which replaced Crane Junior College in 1934 or the branch of this system reactivated at the Crane location after World War II.

The plan of this chapter is similar to that followed in the preceding two analyses: an attempt is made first to identify the broad developmental pattern of Crane Junior College and then to divide the time span under study into both experimental and rapid growth periods. Each of these periods is then considered separately in an attempt to ascertain dominant influences explaining the developmental trends of Crane Junior College.

The Developmental Pattern, 1911 to 1932

Of the three junior colleges studied, considerably more reliable statistical data are available for Crane than for Joliet or Goshen. At least three measures of growth¹ are available enabling an analysis of growth in each of these ways. Included are: (1) average daily membership, 1911 to 1929; (2) total enrollment, 1911-1912 to 1931-1932,² by males and females; and (3) numbers of students graduating between 1913 and 1931. Some account is taken of each of these different measurements in establishing the experimental and second-stage growth periods.

¹Absolute values for these three measures are shown in Appendix A, B, and C.

²In this set of data found in "The Strayer Report" (19:296), the figures for the years 1926-1927, 1927-1928, and 1928-1929 apparently are estimates for Strayer follows each year's enrollment figures with a question mark.

1. The first part of the document discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all transactions. It emphasizes that proper record-keeping is essential for the integrity of the financial system and for the ability to detect and prevent fraud. The text also mentions the need for regular audits and the role of independent auditors in ensuring the reliability of the data.

2. The second part of the document outlines the various methods used to collect and analyze financial data. It describes the use of statistical techniques to identify trends and anomalies in the data. The text also discusses the importance of data security and the measures taken to protect sensitive information from unauthorized access. The document concludes by stating that the information presented is for informational purposes only and should not be used as a basis for investment decisions.

3. The third part of the document provides a detailed overview of the company's financial performance over the past year. It includes a breakdown of revenue by product line and a comparison of actual results to budgeted figures. The text also discusses the company's efforts to reduce costs and improve operational efficiency. The document ends with a statement of the company's commitment to transparency and accountability.

When average daily membership data are used, it seems clear that Crane Junior College's experimental or slow-growth period took place between 1911 and 1919-1920, whereas the school years following 1920-1921 conform with the second-stage, or rapid growth period, recognized by Prescott (30:471-479). These two periods are illustrated by Chart 5, which is drawn on a ratio rather than an absolute scale to show the relative rates of growth, year by year, 1911 to 1929. This chart clearly reveals that beginning with 1920-1921 school year average daily membership increased significantly after a temporary growth plateau during World War I years. Between 1920 and 1929, growth was both steady and rapid, though at a diminished rate starting in 1925.

If a total enrollment were used as the measuring index, it might be logical to set the end of the experimental period somewhat earlier. The lines for total enrollment, male enrollment, and female enrollment, 1911-1912 to 1931-1932, shown in Chart 6, suggest that the experimental period was brief and that early rapid growth was interrupted only during the war years.

In contrast, the third measure of growth which might be used, number of students graduating, suggests a longer experimental period. According to Chart 7, really rapid growth in terms of students completing the full two-year program did not begin until after 1926. The years 1926, 1927, 1928, and 1929 indicate a rapid increase in the numbers of students graduating, though the number then began to drop off during the depression years starting in 1929.



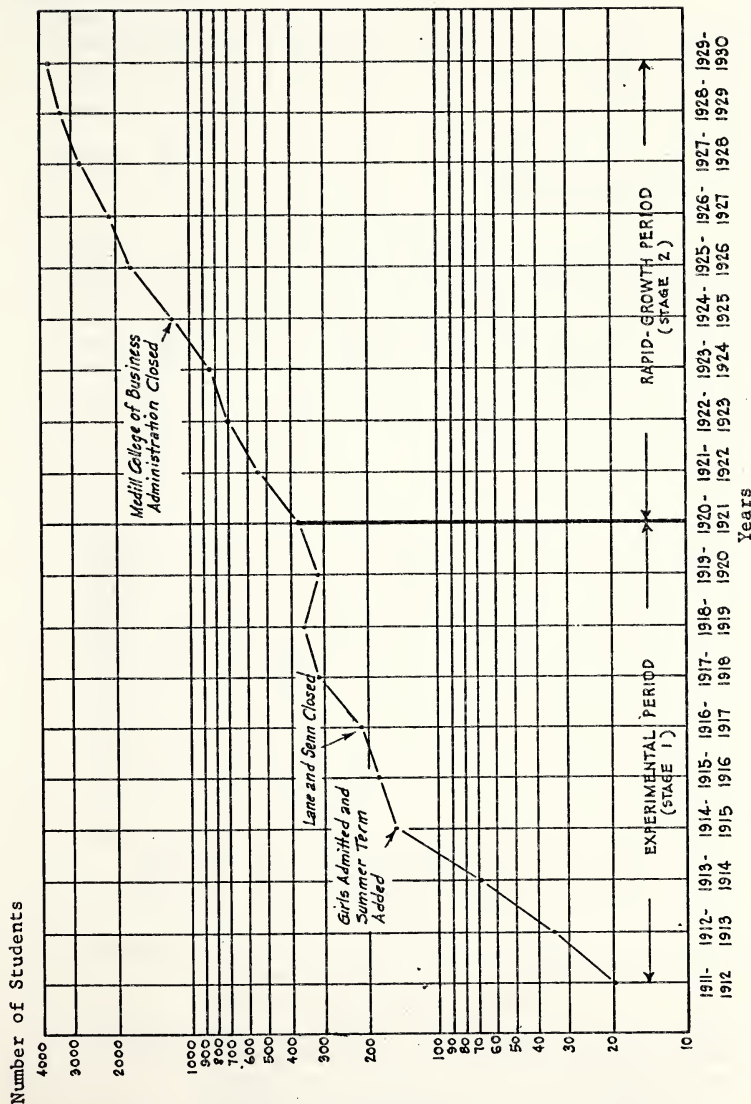


Chart 5. Membership of Grane Junior College, 1911-1912 to 1929-1930, Showing Absolute and Relative Growth.

Source: Data taken from Benjamin C. Willis, "Report on the Chicago City Junior College to the Board of Education, May 23, 1956," Table 1, p. 43.



Number of Students

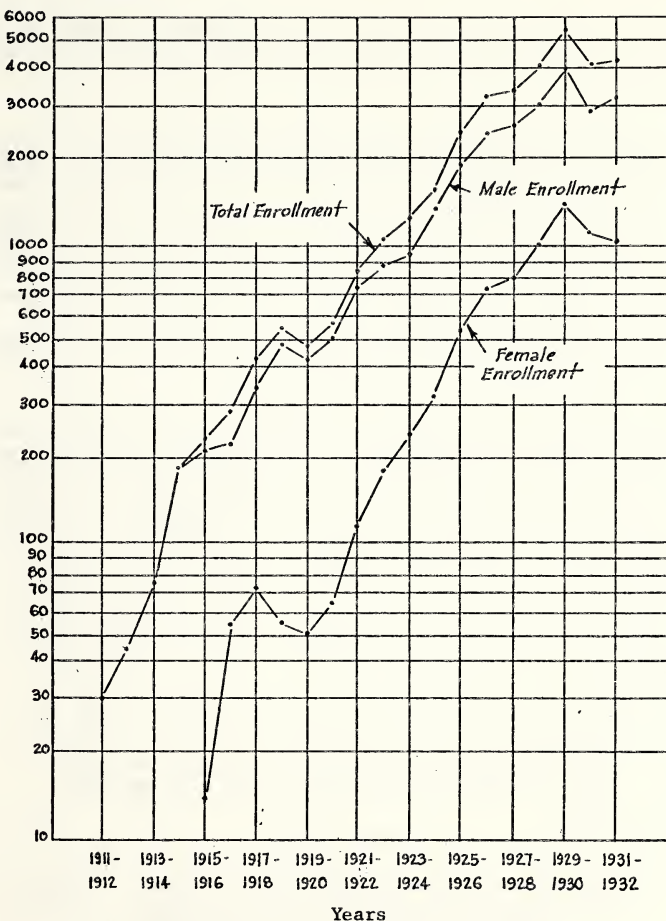


Chart 6. Total Enrollment, Male Enrollment in Crane Junior College, 1911-1912 to 1931-1932, Showing Absolute and Relative Growth.

Source: Data taken from E. S. Evenden and F. B. O'Rear, "Higher Education in the Public School System," in George B. Strayer, Director, Report of the Survey of the Schools of Chicago, Illinois, Vol. II, pp. 295-296.



Number of Students Graduating

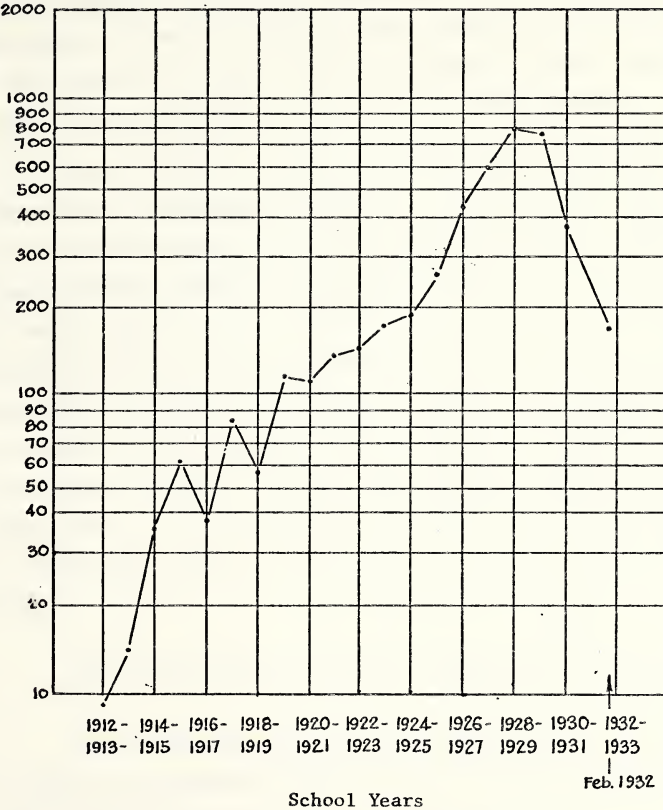


Chart 7. Number of Students Graduating from Crane Junior College, 1912-1913 to February, 1932, Showing Absolute and Relative Growth.

Source: Data taken from E. S. Evenden and F. B. O'Rear, "Higher Education in the Public School System," in George B. Strayer, Director, Report of the Survey of the Schools of Chicago, Illinois, Vol. II, pp. 295-296.

While the pattern revealed by the different kinds of data varies, it seems reasonable to take the school year 1920-1921 as the one marking the transition from the experimental period of Crane Junior College into the rapid-growth stage. That division is followed in this chapter.

In the case of Crane, however, a third period is needed for a meaningful analysis. As has been noted, Crane Junior College came to an end after a period of phenomenal growth through action of the Chicago Board of Education. In many respects, the termination or controversial period between 1930 and 1932 is the most interesting of the three periods considered. Consequently, this termination period is added to the previous two providing an analysis divided into three stages: (1) the experimental period, 1911 to 1919-1920; (2) the second or rapid-growth stage, 1920-1921 to 1929-1930; and (3) the period of termination, 1930 to 1932.

The Experimental Period, 1911-1912 to 1919-1920

A broad overview of the experimental period as well as basic information about some of its most significant dates can be obtained from a study of Charts 8 and 9 [Chart 9, p. 181]. Before developmental factors are analyzed, brief interpretations of these two charts are given as a means of formulating questions to be answered in the analysis proper.

Chart 8 reflects a most interesting and somewhat unusual developmental pattern during the experimental

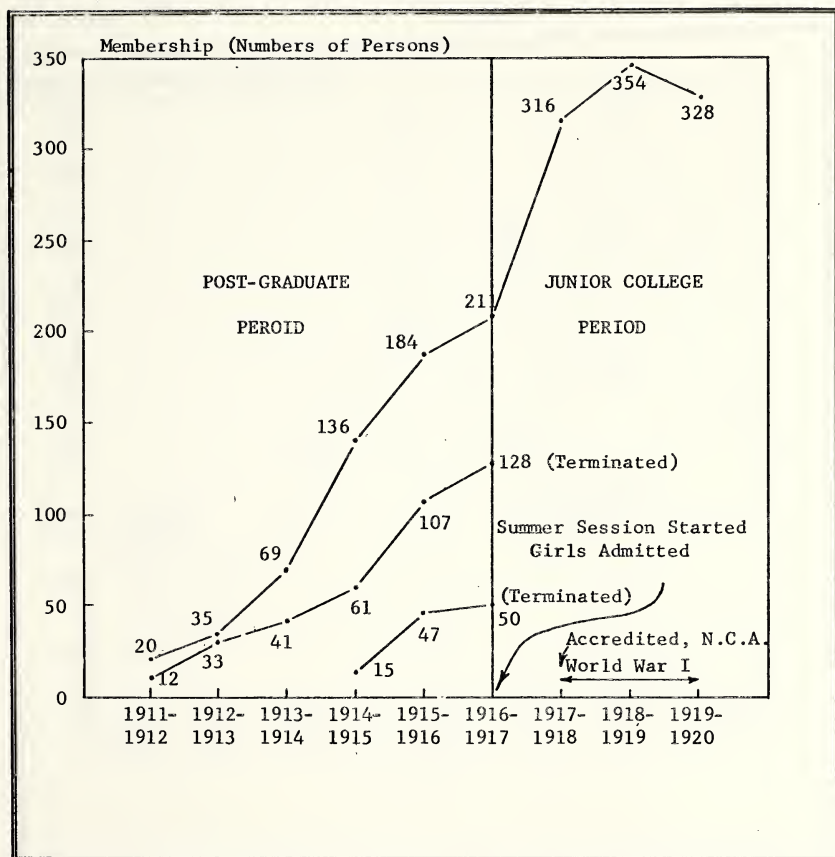


Chart 8. Membership of Crane, Lane, and Senn Technical High Schools' Post-graduate Programs, 1911-1916, and Membership of Crane Junior College, 1916-1919.

Source: Data taken from Benjamin C. Willis, "Report on the Chicago City Junior College to the Chicago Board of Education, May 23, 1956, Table 1, p. 43.

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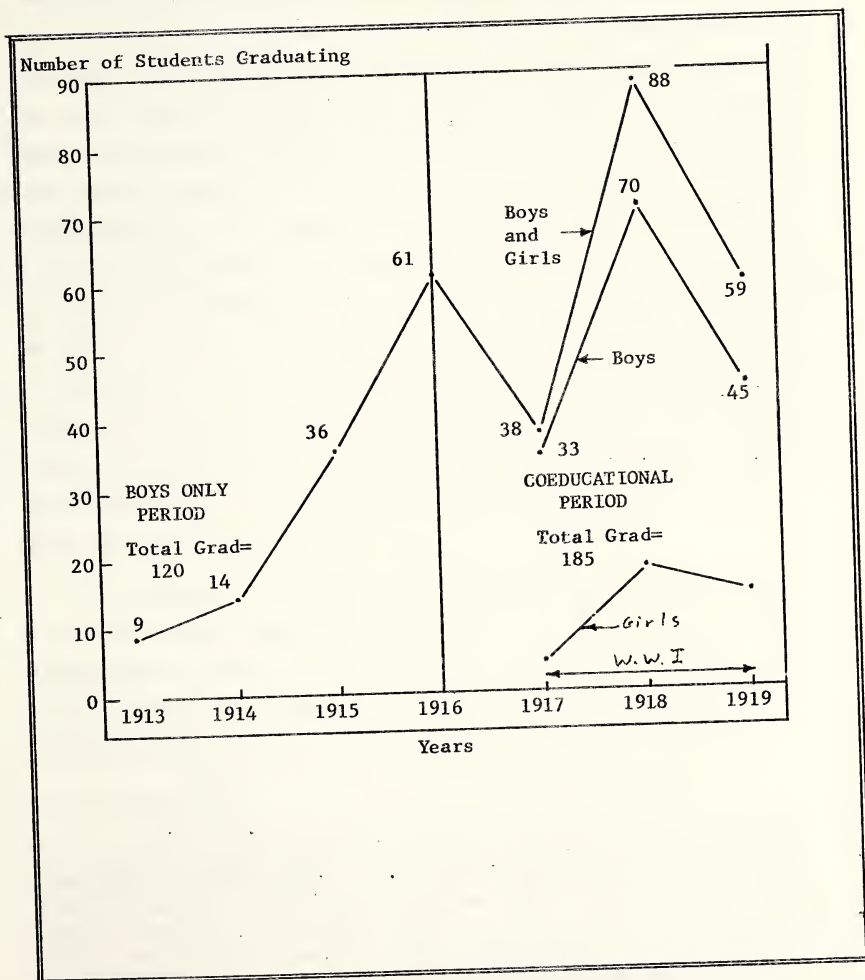


Chart 9. Number of Students Graduating from the Crane Technical High School Post-graduate Program (1913-1916) and from Crane Junior College (1916-1919) during the Crane Junior College Experimental Period, 1911 to 1919.

Source: Data taken from E. S. Evenden and F. B. O'Rear, "Higher Education in the Public School System," in George B. Strayer, Director, Report of the Survey of the Schools of Chicago, Illinois, Vol. II, p. 298.



period. The key element clearly is early decentralization of postgraduate work in three Chicago high schools--Crane, Lane, and Senn--giving way, in 1916, to centralization of all work at Crane which thereafter became formally known as Crane Junior College.³ The 1916 centralization, which was undertaken primarily in the interest of economy (21:2), was quite important from the standpoint of Crane's future development, for it meant that for many years thereafter Crane was the only tax-supported, tuition-free institution of higher education in the second largest city of the United States. Even at the very beginning, the merger, as shown by Chart 8, caused the Crane enrollment to increase sharply though two other simultaneous factors--admission of girls and the institution of a summer session--were also partially responsible for the 1916-1917 increase from 211 to 316, a gain of 49.8 percent.

Another interesting fact revealed by Chart 8 is the rapid enrollment growth which at Crane started almost immediately after the postgraduate work was offered. As can be seen, too, Crane was much more successful than was Lane in attracting students. After 1912, as shown by

³This is not to say that the term Crane Junior College was not used earlier. In the 59th Annual Report of the Board of Education, the superintendent refers to the institutions at Crane and Lane as "the Chicago Junior Colleges" (4:263), but, according to the anniversary bulletin published by the Board in 1961, the name of Crane Junior College was not officially adopted until the merger in 1916 (11:2). The earliest catalog known to exist, the one for 1916, refers to the school as Crane Junior College (17:2).

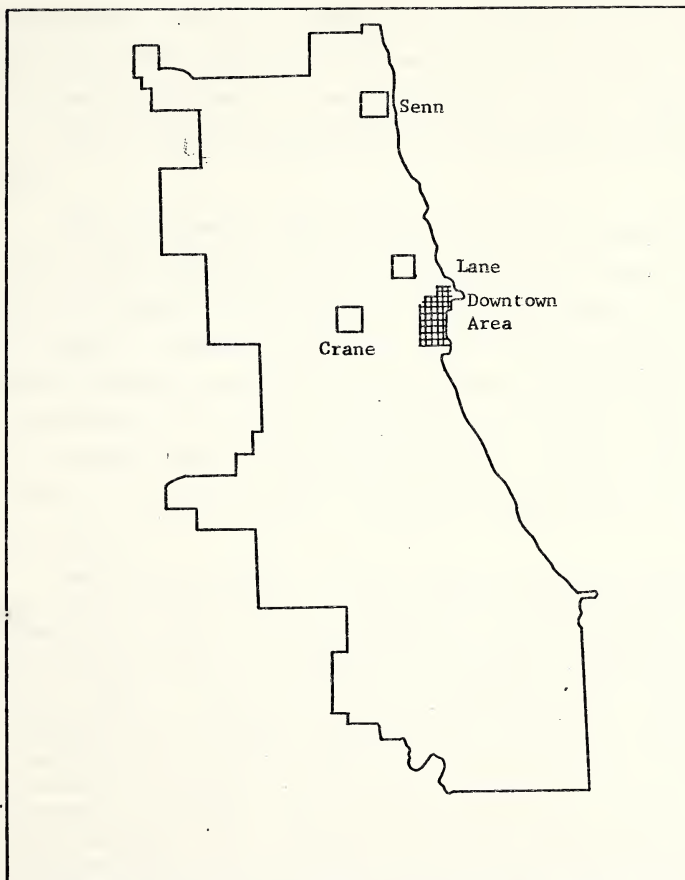


Chart 8, the spread between enrollment for the two schools continually widened in favor of Crane.

During the years 1911 to 1916, there was considerable rivalry of a friendly nature between the principals of the two high schools, William J. Bartholf of Crane and William J. Bogan of Lane. From the standpoint of attracting students, however, Crane had a distinct advantage over Lane in the way of geographical location. As can be seen from Map 1, Crane Technical High School was in almost the very center of the old residential area west of the Chicago downtown shopping center whereas both Lane and Senn were in relatively inaccessible districts. Using what might be viewed as Darwinistic terms, the 1961 anniversary booklet issued by the Chicago Board of Education states that Crane's "central location and its immediate community of youth determined to develop themselves gave it an advantage in the struggle for survival" (11:3).

After the 1916 centralization, the principal events affecting Crane during the remainder of the experimental period were accreditation by the North Central Association in 1917 and the beginning, during the same year, of United States participation in World War I. From Chart 8, it would seem clear that, counteracting the positive impact of accreditation,⁴ World War I brought about a slowing

⁴Coming as late as it did, accreditation was an influence more relevant for growth during the succeeding rapid-growth or second period than it was during the experimental period.



Map 1

Location of Crane, Lane and Senn High Schools in the City of Chicago, 1911-1916.



down of membership, though Crane had a student army training corps in 1917-1918. A close study of Chart 8 suggests that, had it not been for the declaration of war on April 6, 1917, the end of the experimental period would have taken place in, perhaps, 1916, and the beginning of the second or rapid-growth stage would have begun in 1917.

The enrollment trends shown in Chart 8, however, represent only one measurement of progress. If the index used is the number of Crane Junior College graduates,⁵ 1913 to 1919, a somewhat different picture is presented. As Chart 9 shows, growth in size of graduating classes was relatively slow and was also somewhat erratic until 1917. At that time, accreditation appears to have had a considerable positive impact, total graduates rising from

⁵Measuring growth in terms of graduating classes, instead of by enrollment, is equivalent to the practice in industry of using physical output as the principal yardstick of success and industrial activity. Speaking of the problem of measuring growth in modern industrial activity, Alderfer and Michl make this statement: "The best single test of growth and decline is found in the trend of physical quantity of output, e.g., yards of cloth sold, suits of clothing, number of automobiles, tons of steel, pounds of copper, etc. This measure also lacks precision because, over a period of years, the quality of a product may change. For certain purposes, comparisons made on this basis may lead to somewhat defective conclusions. Despite this reservation, physical output is the best single test of growth or decline of a manufacturing industry (1:15). In the case of junior colleges, a more valid measurement might be number of diplomas granted or number of hours earned by students (or their equivalent in terms of equivalent full time students) rather than the number of students enrolling.



38 in 1916-1917 to 88 in 1918-1919 despite the fact that by this time the country was at war.⁶ The 1919-1920 graduating class, however, dropped significantly to 59. Of this number 45, or 76 percent, were boys as compared with an 80 percent distribution of boys in the 1918 class.

The broad overview of the experimental period having been presented, certain questions come to mind. The three main questions which need answering appear to be these:

(1) Why was Crane Junior College, or the early postgraduate work at Richard T. Crane Technical High School, initiated in the first place?

(2) Why did Crane's postgraduate program attract such large numbers of students almost from the beginning?

(3) Why did Crane Junior College achieve relatively poor success in terms of numbers of students graduating?

To answer these questions, major external and internal influences, apart from those already noted in the overview, are analyzed in two sections below. Afterwards, at the end of the analysis, summary generalizations are made and related to the three questions set forth above.

⁶Selective conscription started in May, 1917, men being required to register for the draft on June 5, 1917. Only those between the ages of 21 and 30, however, were required to register at this time. Although 9,586,508 men 21 to 30 years old registered for service, the law as changed in the fall of 1918 called for the registering of all men between 18 and 45, inclusive (24:508).

The first part of the paper discusses the importance of the study of the history of the United States. It is argued that the study of the history of the United States is essential for a full understanding of the country and its people. The paper then goes on to discuss the various factors that have shaped the history of the United States, including the role of the government, the role of the people, and the role of the economy. The paper concludes by arguing that the study of the history of the United States is essential for a full understanding of the country and its people.

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Major External Influences

In the case of Crane Junior College, a good case can be made for the thesis that external factors were of primary importance in its initiation and early development. To be sure, Crane Junior College could not have been initiated without influences also occurring within the educational system of Chicago but it seems probable that the internal influences which did bring about the initiation of the first postgraduate work at Crane and Lane stemmed in a good measure from external forces in the environment. It also seems clear that external forces played a key part in the negative way of retarding success measured in terms of graduating-class size.

Positive Influences. The positive influences, in contrast, help to explain why the Crane postgraduate work was initiated and why this program attracted large numbers of students almost from the beginning. On the basis of a careful inductive appraisal of the available source materials, the main conclusion drawn is that these external positive forces were essentially the same as those macro influences set forth in Chapter II. Crane Junior College, much more so than either of the other institutions studied, reflects the interplay of dominant national trends which stimulated the development of national junior colleges generally.

The relevance of the major macro-external influences of a positive nature to the initiation and early success of



Crane Junior College is indicated in Table XII. As listed on the table, macro influences in the educational system, in the economic system, in the social system, and in the political system were all relevant influences in explaining Crane's initiation and early attraction to students.

In the area of the wider educational system, the following influences are deemed to be of considerable relevance:

(1) The example of successful pioneer junior colleges, such as Joliet, and the upsurge of junior college development which took place during the latter half of the macro-experimental period, or from 1910 to 1919.

(2) A tremendous expansion in the number of Chicago youth attending high school after the turn of the century.

(3) The favorable attitude towards the Crane experiment by the University of Illinois and other institutions of higher learning attended by Crane Junior College students--this favorable attitude ultimately being reflected in accreditation of Crane by the North Central Association.

In regard to the first point, it may be said that the initiation of the postgraduate technical work at Crane and Lane in 1911 was by no means a remarkable event. Between 1910 and 1914, according to Griffith's data (23:14), six other junior colleges in addition to Crane came into being. Moreover, it would seem to be entirely understandable why the educational leaders of the second-largest and most-rapidly growing city in the United States



T A B L E X I I

MAJOR MACRO EXTERNAL INFLUENCES OF A POSITIVE NATURE DURING
THE EXPERIMENTAL PERIOD OF AMERICAN PUBLIC JUNIOR
COLLEGE DEVELOPMENT AND THEIR RELEVANCE TO THE
INITIATION AND EARLY SUCCESS OF
CRANE JUNIOR COLLEGE

MACRO EXTERNAL INFLUENCES	Relevance to Crane's Early Development			
	Very Relevant	Relevant	Irrelevant	Very Irrelevant
I. EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM				
A. Example of Pioneer Junior College		x		
B. Expansion of High School Enrollment		x		
C. Support of Colleges		x		
II. ECONOMIC SYSTEM				
A. Rapid Urbanization		x		
B. Expansion of Machine Energy		x		
III. SOCIAL SYSTEM				
A. Remoteness from Colleges	x			
B. Immigrant Popula- tion	x			
C. Considerable Poverty	x			
D. Reforming Spirit		x		
IV. POLITICAL SYSTEM				
A. Enabling Legislation				x
B. Permissive Attitude		x		



would consider establishing a junior college after similar institutions had proved to be successful in much smaller locations, such as Joliet. Indeed, in rationalizing the Crane institution, Superintendent Ella Hogg Young cited Joliet and other existing junior colleges as precedents:

The movement for higher education under municipal control is well advanced. The municipal colleges of New York and Cincinnati are large and independent. In Joliet, Fresno, Pasadena, and Los Angeles the courses are similar to those of the Chicago Junior Colleges in the technical schools (4:262).

For the second influence within the wider educational system, a rapid expansion of the high school population in Chicago produced a large base from which to draw junior college students. Between 1900 and 1910, as shown by Table XIII, Chicago high school attendance increased from 9,661 to 15,688, a gain of 62.38 percent compared with an increase of only 32.48 percent in grammar school enrollment and an actual decline in primary attendance.

By the middle of the experimental period, 1914-1915, high school enrollment stood at 25,322 as compared with only 12,559 in 1906-1907 (6:33).

Large and rapidly growing though the high school population was, it represented only a small part of the city's youth. In 1910, as shown by Table XIV, Chicago had some 138,027 young people of junior college age--18, 19, and 20 years. Possibly as a result of the war, the number in 1920 was somewhat smaller, the count being 125,630, but



T A B L E X I I I
ATTENDANCE AT CHICAGO PUBLIC SCHOOLS,
1900-1910

Years	Attendance ^A (Number of Pupils)		
	Primary (K-4)	Grammar School (5-8)	High School (9-12)
1900-1901	140,556	66,057	9,661
1901-1902	142,654	67,547	9,627
1902-1903	141,425	68,094	9,488
1903-1904	143,449	73,621	9,937
1904-1905	141,327	77,859	11,208
1905-1906	140,715	81,186	12,024
1906-1907	136,624	82,274	12,259
1907-1908	137,062	84,158	13,213
1908-1909	135,490	86,514	14,685
1909-1910	134,947	86,393	15,688
Net Change, 1900-1910	-5,609	+20,336	+6,027
% Change, 1900-1910	-5.07%	+32.48%	+62.38%

^A In terms of Average Daily Membership.

SOURCE: Board of Education, City of Chicago, 56th Annual Report of the Board of Education, 1909-1910, pp. 199-200.



T A B L E XIV

NUMBER OF PERSONS AGED 18, 19, AND 20 YEARS
IN CHICAGO, ILLINOIS, 1900, 1910,
AND 1920

Years	<u>Number of Youth by Years of Age</u>			Total Youth 18-20 Yrs. Old
	18 Years	19 Years	20 Years	
1900	29,544	28,512	31,408	89,464
1910	45,681	43,510	48,836	138,027
1920	41,482	41,156	42,992	125,630
Avg., 1910-1920	43,582	42,333	45,914	131,829

SOURCE: Data taken from Ernest W. Burgess and Charles Newcomb,
Census Data of the City of Chicago, 1920, pp. 9-10.

during Crane's entire experimental period there was in Chicago an average of 131,829 persons who, according to age, might have been junior college or college students. When Crane's enrollment figures ranging from 30 in 1911 to 463 in 1919-1920 are compared with this huge number of young people, much of the school's success in attracting students is explained.

The third educational system external influence noted is the favorable attitude toward Crane of the University of Illinois and of other institutions of higher learning, which at this time, as previously noted in Chapter II, were feeling the impact of the swelling numbers of young people seeking entrance to college. After the Crane postgraduate program had been in effect only two years, Principal Bogan of Lane Technical High School was able to report that:

Among the institutions giving full college credit for the work [done in the technical school postgraduate programs] are Armour Institute, the University of Illinois, Northwestern University, the Universities of Wisconsin and Michigan. Hence it is possible to complete the usual college course by taking the first two years at Crane or Lane and the third and fourth years at some other institution. In fact, it is possible to secure the degree of A.B. in industrial arts in three years by taking advanced shop work in the technical schools for two years and finishing with special work at Armour for one year (4:262).

Crane Junior College, it may be noted, differs from both Joliet and Goshen in that it had little if any

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relationship with the University of Chicago. The fact that it came into existence after the death of President Harper and even after the termination of the cooperative program would be one logical explanation of this difference, but even more important, according to an early faculty member of Crane, Charles S. Stewart, was the fact that Crane was a technically-oriented junior college while the University of Chicago had no engineering department (31:44).

As far as outside influence from institutions of higher education was concerned, the University of Illinois was dominant. According to Stewart, it helped set up the courses at Crane and in other ways encouraged the development of the institution. Stewart was of the opinion that one of the main reasons the University of Illinois was so cooperative was that "the university is very much overcrowded in the first year and is very glad indeed to 'shunt' some of its students into other institutions where they can get training for the senior class in engineering" (31:44).

In addition to macro influences in the educational system, there were important forces in the economic sphere which help to explain Crane's initiation and success in attracting students. Relevant influences in this area include the following:

- (1) The rapid development of Chicago as one of the chief urban centers in the United States, the urbanization fostering a middle-class way of life emphasizing education as a means of social class mobility.



(2) Vastly expanded usage of machine energy having such effects as the following: (a) increased leisure among young people needed for pursuing education beyond the high school, (b) increased need for technical and vocational skills such as were not being supplied in the regular high schools, and (c) development of an appreciation of education by workers aspiring to middle-class status for their children.

The growth of the urban population in Chicago between the end of the Civil War and the end of the first decade of the twentieth century was truly remarkable. In 1870, as shown by Table XV, Chicago had only 298,977 people. By 1890, it had more than a million with the population reaching 2,185,283 in 1910. Ranking only 25th among other United States cities in population size in 1850, Chicago, during the next three decades, outstripped all the nation's twenty-three larger cities to become second largest in size before the turn of the century.

The growth of Chicago was, in a large measure, based upon the great expansion in industrialization which characterized the period during and after the Civil War. Before 1850, Chicago industry had been based mainly upon the processing and handling of agricultural products produced on the rich Illinois prairies. This included a considerable brewing and distilling industry and also some wagon and ship building (14:1). The completion of the Illinois and Michigan Canal in 1848 and the subsequent development of the railroads, however, opened the way for Chicago to become a



T A B L E X V
POPULATION OF CHICAGO, 1840-1930

Year	Number of Persons	Percent Increase
1930	3,376,438	25.0
1920	2,701,705	23.6
1910	2,185,283	28.7
1900	1,698,575	54.4
1890	1,099,850	118.6
1880	503,185	68.3
1870	298,977	173.6
1860	109,260	264.6
1850	29,963	570.3
1840	4,470	

SOURCE: Philip M. Hauser and Evelyn M. Kitagawa, Local
Community Fact Book for Chicago, 1950, p. 2.



large manufacturing center serving a widely distributed population. During the Civil War, Chicago, out of and yet close to the military action, became important as a processor of meat and as a manufacturer of uniforms for the Union Army, and after peace the war-stimulated factories converted to production for the civilian population--processing meat and making men's clothing and furniture. The recent invention of the reaper and the thresher enabled many former farm workers to migrate to the city, and, in addition, Chicago was fed by a stream of cheap labor immigrating from Europe. This stream was especially heavy between 1877 and 1897, or during the "age of trusts," when Chicago began to develop an important iron and steel industry (14:3).

Between 1897 and 1918, usage of machine energy in Chicago continued to expand at a rapid rate. By 1914, largely as a result of the outbreak of war in Europe, iron and steel production bypassed in economic importance the old "big three" Chicago industries--meat, clothing and furniture. During this time, also, with two of the nation's large mail-order houses established in the city, Chicago developed a large printing and publishing business (14:4).

That the increasing mechanization of economic activity freed a large population of young people to engage in education is indicated by statements found in the early Board of Education reports. One of the perennial problems which the Board faced after the turn of the century was that of making sure that out-of-school youth were, as the

The first part of the paper discusses the importance of the study of the history of the United States. It is argued that a knowledge of the past is essential for a full understanding of the present. The author then goes on to discuss the various factors that have shaped the development of the United States, including the role of the government, the influence of the economy, and the impact of the culture. The paper concludes by suggesting that a study of the history of the United States is not only a valuable academic exercise, but also a necessary one for anyone who wishes to understand the world in which we live.

law required, employed. Apparently many were not, for in the Board's 58th Annual Report for the year ending June, 1912, the superintendent is quoted as speaking as follows:

Under the compulsory education law children between 14 and 16 years of age must continue to attend school or go to work. Many children alternate between school and employment. There are others who will neither attend school nor go to work. I recommend an amendment to the parental school law to provide for truants between 14 and 16 who are beyond parental control (3:183).

While there may have been many truants, urbanization and the industrial society populated Chicago with large numbers of families aspiring to a middle-class way of life for their children achieved through education. In the Board's 61st Annual Report, the superintendent explained the City's recent large gains in high school enrollment partially on the basis of "the larger proportion of parents who realize the increasing possibilities in industry and commerce for young men and women with well trained minds" (6:33).

To continue the analysis of important macro internal influences and their relevance to the initiation and early development of Crane, forces originating in the social system were, as shown by Table XII, very relevant. Social system influences helping to explain Crane's development are listed as follows:

(1) Despite Chicago's large size, young people of the city were remotely located with respect to public



institutions of higher learning such as students of modest means might attend. There was, accordingly, a strong need for a local, tuition-free junior college meeting the requirements of those who could not afford to patronize Chicago's privately endowed colleges and universities;

(2) The residence in Chicago of a large immigrant population, which, while it also had negative influences, was positively related to the development of Crane Junior College in that a great need existed to provide vocational education for deserving immigrant youth;

(3) The existence in Chicago, and particularly in the neighborhoods in the vicinity of Crane Junior College, of a considerable degree of poverty which, while it also had its negative aspects, made the idea of tuition-free junior college particularly supportable;

(4) The early twentieth-century progressive spirit which, in Chicago, was partially manifested by an earnest desire by influential school people to do something to improve the plight of the disadvantaged-but-capable segments of the population and by the willingness of the Board of Education to support such efforts.

It was doubtlessly a little embarrassing to some of Chicago's educational and civic leaders that Chicago, large and economically important as it was, lacked, with the exception of a single normal school, a publically supported institution of higher learning. If Chicago high school graduates were to attend college at all, they were either forced to enter one of the privately-endowed Chicago

institutions--the University of Chicago, Armour Institute of Technology, DePaul University (Catholic and co-educational), Northwestern University (Methodist), or Loyola University (Catholic--men only)--or travel long distances to some outside college or university. The University of Illinois, which seemed to be the favored outside institution, was at Champaign-Urbana about 120 miles south of Chicago. Thus, considering the difficulty of travel at the time, Chicago youth, before the Crane experimental period, were remotely located from public institutions of higher learning. This remoteness was, indeed, a very good reason for the city's educational leaders to consider a public, tuition-free junior college.

Chicago's large immigration population, too, was a factor of importance, for, as is shown in a later section, this group of unassimilated or partially assimilated Chicago residents created a strong need for technical and vocational education more intensive and advanced than could be provided in the regular high schools. From the standpoint of understanding Crane's initiation and early success in attracting students, it is certainly necessary to know something about the foreign-born population of Chicago and, in particular, about that portion of it residing in the Near West Side community in which Crane was located.⁷

⁷This is not to imply that Crane attracted students only from the Near West Side. They came from all parts of the city but the Near West Side provided a large part of the enrollment.

In 1910, as listed on Table XVI, more than 35 of every 100 persons living within the city limits of Chicago had been born in a foreign country. While the proportion was reduced to 29.8 percent by 1920, there was, throughout Crane's experimental period, a tremendous population of foreign-born youth and of children born to foreign-born parents to be assimilated. The Chicago schools bore the largest responsibility for that task.

During Crane's experimental period, too, a very large proportion of Chicago's foreign born were very recent arrivals. In 1910, as can be seen from Table XVII, 39.6 percent of Chicago's foreign-born residents had immigrated to the city during the previous decade. Between 1911 and 1913, or during Crane's first two years of existence, 106,717 additional persons of foreign birth settled in Chicago, though from that date until 1919 the stream was significantly checked both by the outbreak of the European conflict and by more restrictive policies adopted by the United States government during the war years when there was much distrust and not a little harsh persecution under the Espionage and Sedition Acts of foreign elements (24:518-519).

Moreover, as is clearly shown by Table XVIII summarizing data from the 1920 census taken at the end of Crane's experimental period, large proportions of the more recently immigrated Chicago residents were jammed in the neighborhood called the Near West Side, the area surrounding Crane. One of the city's oldest communities, the Near West



TABLE XVI

POPULATION OF THE CITY OF CHICAGO^a BY COLOR AND NATIVITY,
1910, 1920, AND 1930

Population Classes	Years						% Change	
	1910		1920		1930		1910-	1920-
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	1920	1930
Total Popu- lation	2,185,283	100.0	2,701,705	100.0	3,376,438	100.0	23.6	24.9
White Popu- lation	2,139,057	97.9	2,589,169	95.8	3,117,731	92.3	21.0	20.4
Native	1,357,840	62.2	1,783,687	66.0	2,275,674	67.4	31.4	27.5
Foreign Born	781,217	35.7	805,482	29.8	842,057	24.9	3.1	4.5
Non-white Population	46,226	2.1	112,536	4.2	258,707	7.7	143.4	129.9
Negro	44,103	2.0	109,458	4.1	233,903	7.0	148.2	113.7
Other	2,123	0.1	3,078	0.1	24,804	.7	45.0	705.8

^a Excludes part of population living in metropolitan area outside political boundaries of the City of Chicago proper.

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Fifteenth Census of the United States, 1930, Population, Vol. II, General Report Statistics by Subjects, Table 23, Native and Foreign-Born Population by Color or Race, for Cities of 100,000 or more: 1930, 1920, and 1910, p. 67.



T A B L E X V I I

FOREIGN BORN POPULATION BY YEAR OF IMMIGRATION FOR CHICAGO
 FIGURES BASED ON CENSUS OF 1920 AND 1910

Year of Immigration Total Foreign Born	1920		1910	
	Number	%	Number	%
	808,558 ^A	100.0	783,428 ^A	100.0
1919	3,988	0.5		
1918	1,737	0.2		
1917	2,775	0.3		
1916	4,876	0.3		
1915	8,238	1.0		
1914	27,928	3.5		
1911-1913	106,717	13.2		
1906-1910	148,603	18.4	161,421	21.9
1901-1905	111,372	13.8	<u>130,279</u>	<u>17.7</u>
			271,700	39.6
1900 or earlier	327,286	40.5		
1896-1900			53,601	7.3
1891-1895			79,278	10.8
1890 or earlier			311,323	42.3
Year not reported	65,038	8.0	47,526	

^AThese totals are slightly higher than those found in Table XVI due to minor differences in classification used by the demographic centers.

SOURCE: Ernest W. Burgess and Charles Newcomb, Census Data for the City of Chicago, 1920, Table 9, p. 23.



T A B L E XVIII
FOREIGN BORN POPULATION OF CHICAGO AND
OF THE CHICAGO NEAR WEST SIDE, 1920

Population Characteristics	A. Chicago Total	B. Near West Side Total	C. B. as a % of A.
Total Foreign Born	805,482	74,852	9.3
Total Born in Russia	171,965	23,350	13.6
Total Born in Italy	59,854	20,599	34.4
Total Born in Germany	137,148	3,672	2.7
Total Born in Other Foreign Countries	436,515	27,231	6.2

SOURCES: Chicago totals from U.S. Bureau of the Census, Fourteenth Census of the United States, 1920, Vol. II, Population, Table II, Country of Origin of the Foreign White Stock by Nativity and Parentage, for Cities Having 100,000 Inhabitants or More: 1920, p. 934.

Near West Side totals computed from U.S. Bureau of Census data compiled by Ernest W. Burgess and Charles Newcomb in Census Data of the City of Chicago, 1920, by summing census tract data for tracts 222-261, pp. 311-350.

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Side had long served as the initial home of successive waves of immigrants. Before the turn of the century, it had been populated mainly by Germans, Irish, and other Northern and Central European nationalities. As they prospered, however, the Germans and the Irish moved to more desirable neighborhoods in the western and northwestern parts of Chicago (28:76). By 1900 they were rapidly being replaced "by a steady influx of . . . Italians, Poles, Russians (Jews),^a and Greeks" (28:71).

By 1920, the predominant foreign population in the Near West Side were made up of Russians followed closely by Italians. The total population, which had declined slightly (by 6,513 persons) since 1910, numbered 194,259 at the end of the second decade. Of this number, as shown by Table XIX, 74,852, or 38.5 percent, were persons of foreign birth. Individuals born in Russia numbered 23,350 (12.0 percent of the total population and 31.2 percent of the foreign-born segment) while the Italians were enumerated at 20,599 (10.6 percent of all individuals and 27.5 percent of the foreign-born population). In five of the Near West Side's 40 census tracts, the Russian population exceeded 1,000 and represented distributions to total population of

^aAlmost all the statistical literature for the period from 1900 to 1920 when mentioning the Russians affixes to the nationality designation the word "Jews" in parentheses. While there were probably some Russians who did not adhere to the Jewish faith, it is probable that the greater number of Russians who immigrated to Chicago during the first two decades of the twentieth century were in fact Jews.



T A B L E X I X

TOTAL POPULATION, FOREIGN BORN POPULATION, AND JUNIOR
COLLEGE AGE POPULATION OF CHICAGO'S NEAR WEST SIDE
COMMUNITY IN 1920

Population by Classes	Number of Persons	Percent
Total Population	194,259	100.0
Foreign Born Population, White	74,852	38.5
Born in Russia	23,350	12.0
Born in Italy	20,599	10.6
Born in Germany	3,672	1.9
Born in Other Foreign Countries	27,231	14.0
Junior College Age Population		
Persons 18-19 Years Old	6,147	3.2
Persons 20 Years Old	3,153	1.6
Persons 18-20 Years Old	9,300	4.8
Junior College Age Population in School		
Persons 18-19 Years Old	596	(N=6,147) 9.7
Persons 20 Years Old	208	(N=3,153) 6.6
Persons 18-20 Years Old	804	(N=9,300) 8.6

SOURCE: All data compiled independently from 1920 U.S. Bureau of the Census data presented individually for 40 census tracts in Ernest W. Burgess and Charles Newcomb's Census Data of the City of Chicago, 1920, pp. 311-350.



between 20 and 40 percent. The Italians, too, were concentrated in a relatively small area composed of 5 of the 40 tracts (13:311-350).

In the analysis of macro influences made in Chapter II, it was suggested that the large polygot population of the first two decades of the twentieth century was largely a negative influence from the standpoint of junior college development. The rationale here was that the foreign-born elements, and particularly those representing the "new immigration," were probably more indifferent to educational opportunities than were the native born. This thesis, however, does not seem to be borne out by the data for the immigrant population of Chicago's Near West Side. While only 74,852 of the 194,259 persons living in the area were actually born in foreign countries, a very large part of the remainder had parents who had been born outside the United States, so that it might be said that much of the entire population was, culturally speaking, an immigrant group. Yet, as Table XIX indicates, 804 of the 9,300 individuals aged 18 to 20 years, representing the junior college ages, were attending some sort of school. The proportion is 8.6 percent--a figure which, considering the times, would seem to be high and which casts considerable doubt on the thesis that the immigrant population was indifferent to the values of education beyond the grammar school and first two years of high school (legal age of withdrawal).



The large Russian (Jewish) population of the Near West Side may have been especially important from the standpoint of explaining why Crane Junior College attracted large numbers of students from the very beginning. Traditionally, persons of the Jewish faith have been both personally ambitious and intellectually inclined, and there is good reason to believe that a large proportion of Crane's early enrollments were made up by Russian Jews. Writing of the student body at the end of the experimental period, Stewart noted that:

Crane Junior College is located on the west side of the city, in that region where there are a great many students who are either foreigners or whose parents came from foreign lands, and who speak a foreign language. Many of the students speak English with difficulty; many of them cannot say "with"; and, except with constant effort, it is impossible to correct their speech. We have many of that type who have keen minds, and we cannot "fail" them in English as many of them write well. Although they are not perfection in their work in English, if they are keen mentally they succeed; they are in earnest.

I have already mentioned the keenness of some of these boys from the foreign-language sections. They are tremendously anxious to get on in the world, particularly Jewish boys, and they work day and night to stay in college; many work six hours, from 4 o'clock on, in order to stay in (31:43).

The importance of the Russian (Jewish) element to Crane is also suggested by Table XX which tabulates data for four Near West Side census tracts having especially large concentrations of Russians (Jews). To some extent at least,



T A B L E XX

DATA SHOWING A ROUGH RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN A HIGH DISTRIBUTION
OF RUSSIANS (JEWS) IN THE CHICAGO NEAR WEST SIDE AND A HIGH
PROPORTION OF JUNIOR COLLEGE AGE YOUTH IN SCHOOL, 1920

Tract No.	Total Pop.	No. Russians (Jews)	Percent Russians (Jews)	Total # 18-20 Years	Total # 18-20 Years In School	Percent 18-20 Years In School
255	9,438	2,146	22.7	472	29	6.1
256	12,269	3,172	25.9	682	62	9.1
257	9,240	3,811	41.2	496	72	14.5
258	5,472	2,221	40.6	289	15	5.2
259	5,357	2,043	38.1	181	14	7.7
Total	41,776	13,393	32.0	2,120	192	9.1
Entire Near West Side	194,259	23,350	12.0	9,300	804	8.6

SOURCE: Ernest W. Burgess and Charles Newcomb, Census Data of
the City of Chicago, 1920, pp. 344-348.



the data suggest a positive relationship between a proportion of Russians (Jews) and a high proportion of persons 18 to 20 years old, inclusive, attending school. The five tracts heavily populated with Russians provided 192, or 23.9 percent, of all of the 804 Near West Side's persons aged 18 to 20 years old, inclusive, who were attending some sort of school, whereas its population of all persons of this age level was somewhat lower, being 22.8 percent.

Other data also suggest that the Russian (Jewish) element was a positive external factor helping to explain Crane's immediate success in attracting large enrollments. Figures show, for example, an exceptionally large attendance of Russians (Jews) in the Chicago school's Classes for Immigrants. During the 1912-1913 year, of the 11,571 persons of all nationalities enrolled in these classes, 3,162 or 27.3 percent, were Russians (Jews). The next year, 1913-1914, the number and proportion of Russians attending the same classes was still greater--5,086 out of a total of 17,827 persons enrolled, or 28.5 percent (5:398).

Ambitious and intellectually inclined though many of the people living in the Near West Side and in other immigrant neighborhoods may have been, these people generally earned very low wages and many lived in actual poverty. The large-scale poverty which characterized urban American society in general during the first two decades of the twentieth century (see Chapter II) was clearly evident in Chicago during Crane's experimental

The first part of the paper discusses the importance of the study of the history of the United States. It is argued that the study of the history of the United States is essential for a full understanding of the country and its people. The paper then discusses the various methods used by historians to study the past, including the use of primary and secondary sources, and the importance of critical thinking in the study of history.

The second part of the paper discusses the role of the federal government in the development of the United States. It is argued that the federal government has played a central role in the development of the country, and that its actions have shaped the course of American history. The paper then discusses the various policies and programs of the federal government, and the impact of these policies on the country and its people.

The third part of the paper discusses the role of the states in the development of the United States. It is argued that the states have played a central role in the development of the country, and that their actions have shaped the course of American history. The paper then discusses the various policies and programs of the states, and the impact of these policies on the country and its people.

period and it sometimes became a topic of discussions at meetings of the Board of Education. The 58th Annual Report for the year ending June 1912, for example, shows the superintendent speaking in these words:

I do not believe it would be advisable to amend the compulsory education law by eliminating the privilege of permitting children to go to work at fourteen. Such a procedure would practically destroy the child labor law and deprive thousands of poor families of the combined incomes of mothers and children, which is necessary in order that they might live and keep the younger children in school. While it is lamentable that so many children between fourteen and sixteen must necessarily be employed, the high cost of living has forced many into factories, stores, and offices. The cost of living has become the problem of living among all classes (3:183).

On the whole, the existence of much poverty in Chicago, and particularly in the slum neighborhoods of the Near West Side, was probably more negative than positive, but it did have its positive aspects from the standpoint of Crane Junior College's initiation. The large number of poor but deserving and ambitious immigrant youth in Chicago appears to have been one of the main factors causing the superintendent of the Chicago Schools and the principal of Crane Technical High School to recognize the need for a free public junior college. This point is developed in fuller detail in the subsequent discussion of positive internal factors.

In the same way, the progressive or reforming spirit which was such a notable feature of the first part of the

twentieth century, as explained in Chapter II, was at least somewhat relevant as an influence helping to bring about the initiation of Crane Junior College. As will be noted later, there was a sincere desire among some of the school's leaders to "remake the old America" (20:573) through the use of public funds for education at the higher levels. Much of the old Social Darwinistic thinking regarding the presumed danger of attempting to improve the lot of the poor and thus defy the natural laws of survival and progress disappeared during the first decade of the twentieth century, and the change in philosophy toward a more humane concern for the poor was doubtlessly at least mildly relevant to the initiation of Crane Junior College.

In the political environment, too, there were positive influences. Of these, the most important was the permissive attitude which the State of Illinois had long taken with respect to the legality of public junior colleges. While there was no enabling legislation, likewise there was an absence of prohibitive legislation. Moreover, there was the existence of other public junior colleges (Joliet, for example, in Illinois) to give the superintendent and the Board of Education some confidence that a Chicago junior college would be safe from attack on legal grounds--a confidence which, however, later events proved to be misplaced.

Negative External Influences. The external influences relevant to the initiation and development of Crane Junior College were not all positive in nature. There were, in addition, a few negative forces which should be noted.

These include the following:

- (1) The foreign-language and culturally deprived backgrounds of many of the students representing Crane's principal constituency (these backgrounds making it especially difficult for some students to do successful junior college work);
- (2) An unhealthy degree of dominance over Crane with respect to curriculum by the University of Illinois and other institutions of higher learning;
- (3) The large amount of poverty in Chicago making it necessary for the Board of Education to concentrate on economy in the administration of the junior college program.

With respect to the first point, it is well recognized today that even students who have very high intelligence quotients may do poorly in school if they come from culturally deprived neighborhoods where English is rarely spoken and where the ordinary middle-class value system is absent. As Conant points out in his recently published Slums and Suburbs, a book which, incidentally, throws much light on the modern character of the neighborhood served by the present (reactivated) Crane Branch of Chicago City Junior College,⁹ slum children are not necessarily either

⁹Today, the Chicago Near West Side is populated predominantly by Negroes, who began to migrate to the area during World War I as termination of immigration from Europe produced a labor shortage. In his book Slums and Suburbs, Conant points out, however, that there is a vast difference between the modern Negro inhabitants and the former immigrant slum-dwellers. One big difference is that

intellectually or genetically inferior to middle-class children and yet tend to achieve much less success in school than do children from more favorable homes and middle-class social environments. The main thesis of Conant's book is that "to a considerable degree what a school should do and can do is determined by the status and ambitions of the families being served" (15:9). In light of what is now known about the relationship between cultural deprivation and academic performance, it is reasonable to suppose that the poor home and neighborhood of many of Crane's students during the experimental period made it difficult for them to do the advanced work of the junior college. If this hypothesis is valid, it would help to explain why, of the many students enrolled at Crane, only a relatively few graduated during the experimental period.

Regarding the second point: while it has already been suggested that the University of Illinois and other

the white immigrants could see a way out of the slums through hard work and education, whereas "the almost complete lack of such conviction--a consequence of the tragic story of the Negro in the United States--is the outstanding characteristic of youth in the Negro slums" (15:36). Moreover, the slum-dwellers of the early 1900's were needed as common laborers, whereas automation has today largely eliminated the demand for unskilled persons. Thus, "neither in terms of the kinds of people involved nor in terms of the economic and social setting is there much resemblance between the poor city districts of 1900 and those who are the sore spots of our modern cities" (15:36). Consequently, the dedicated administrators and teachers of the modern Crane Branch of Chicago City Junior College face problems far more difficult than those which beset the school's leaders during the experimental period.

institutions of higher learning played a positive role by taking an interest in Crane Junior College, the same influence probably had its negative aspects. In discussing Crane's historical development shortly after the end of the experimental period, Stewart noted that "we have had a hard fight, for we have been in the shadow of three universities that are not prone to accept our work unless it is of a high grade" (31:43). He further noted that "At first we had difficulty with the university about having our junior college work accepted, because, as in many other things, we approach the subject from a different point of view" (31:44). Remembering Dr. Conant's generalization--"what a school should do and can do is determined by the status and ambitions of the families being served" (15:9)--one may suggest that the efforts of the University of Illinois to enforce rigid standards at Crane may have been inconsistent with the needs and ambitions of the students and may, consequently, have discouraged many of them from staying on to complete the full two-year course.

As for the third influence listed above, the poverty which was all too evident in Chicago at the turn of the century was doubtlessly an important factor in that the low tax revenues naturally associated with it forced the Chicago Board of Education to be more or less perennially preoccupied with the need to economize. Perhaps the unwise move made during the experimental period was that of centralizing all junior college work at Crane in 1916.



The earlier decentralized plan would have spared Crane many of the problems which began to manifest themselves during the second-stage period of development. The need to centralize resulting from the need to economize undoubtedly was based in good measure upon the lack of taxable income due to the circumstances of poverty of Chicago's immigrant population. In recommending centralization at Crane in 1916, the superintendent reaffirmed the ideal that "there should be provided at public expense opportunities for a college education for those who are not prepared to meet the financial outlay incident to student life in state or private universities" (27:2), but went on to say that, in the interest of economy, it would be "reasonable and rational" to consolidate all college work into one unit (27:2).

Now that the important external influences, positive and negative, have been presented, attention can be given to those influences occurring within the Chicago educational system which help to answer the three questions relevant to the experimental period.

Major Internal Influences

Considering the macro and micro educational, economic, demographic, and social influences evident in Chicago and in the Near West Side at the beginning of the second decade of the twentieth century, it is by no means suprising that tuition-free postgraduate work in the technical high schools began to be offered in 1911. Before



these programs could actually be initiated, however, positive internal influences were necessary to stimulate action and to keep the programs in existence. These positive influences are first discussed below. A later section draws attention to certain negative factors in the internal environment which are relevant to the question of why Crane failed to achieve its potential in terms of graduating students.

Positive Influences. The positive influences suggested by available source material were apparently two in number. They include:

(1) Dissatisfaction of the Chicago superintendent of schools, Mrs. Ella Hogg Young, with the opportunities which the regular high school provided for meeting the vocational needs of students who would not attend institutions of higher learning after graduating, and who, indeed, were unlikely even to complete the full secondary school program;

(2) The personal influence of Principal William J. Bogan of Lane Technical High School, and quite possibly, also, of Principal William J. Bartholf at Crane, in the way of preventing a possible abandonment of the early post-graduate programs at a critical time when other aspects of a larger plan with which these programs were associated were terminated.

To these influences might be added, of course, the willingness of the Board of Education to support

1. The first part of the document is a letter from the President of the United States to the Congress, dated January 3, 1862. It is a very important document, as it contains the President's annual message to Congress. The letter is written in a formal, dignified style, and it is one of the most important documents in the history of the United States.

2. The second part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Interior, dated January 3, 1862. It is a very important document, as it contains the Secretary's annual report to the President. The report is written in a formal, dignified style, and it is one of the most important documents in the history of the United States.

3. The third part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Treasury, dated January 3, 1862. It is a very important document, as it contains the Secretary's annual report to the President. The report is written in a formal, dignified style, and it is one of the most important documents in the history of the United States.

4. The fourth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the War, dated January 3, 1862. It is a very important document, as it contains the Secretary's annual report to the President. The report is written in a formal, dignified style, and it is one of the most important documents in the history of the United States.

5. The fifth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Navy, dated January 3, 1862. It is a very important document, as it contains the Secretary's annual report to the President. The report is written in a formal, dignified style, and it is one of the most important documents in the history of the United States.

6. The sixth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Department of the Interior, dated January 3, 1862. It is a very important document, as it contains the Secretary's annual report to the President. The report is written in a formal, dignified style, and it is one of the most important documents in the history of the United States.

changes and innovations in the organization of the regular high schools and of the technical schools and its approval of the plan to offer tuition-free postgraduate work. As has already been suggested, the progressive reforming spirit of the early 1900's helps to explain why the Chicago Board of Education went along with the reorganization plans.

Regarding the first listed point: the reports of the Board of Education make it clear that, essentially, the early postgraduate courses at Crane and Lane grew out of the strong dissatisfaction of Superintendent Ella Hogg Young with the kind of education immigrant children were receiving in the regular high schools. As early as 1909, she pointed out (2:82) that, because the high school courses were planned mainly to satisfy the admission requirements of colleges and universities, it was virtually impossible for children who did not intend to continue their education beyond the high school to prepare themselves adequately for vocational success. For the immigrant children who needed technical skills for employment rather than proficiency in Latin and other academic subjects, the high schools really had very little to offer. Consequently, complained Superintendent Young, they dropped out in large numbers after a year or two in high school, many of them seeking the kind of education they needed in private business schools and training programs. No doubt referring obliquely to the University of Chicago and its cooperative program, the superintendent is quoted in the 1909-1910 56th Annual Report as follows:

1. The first part of the document is a letter from the President of the United States to the Congress, dated January 1, 1861. It is a very important document, as it sets out the President's policy for the new year. The President states that he is pleased to see the Congress assembled, and that he is confident that the country is in a good position to meet the challenges of the future. He also mentions the recent election of Abraham Lincoln as President, and expresses his confidence in the new administration.

2. The second part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Treasury, dated January 1, 1861. It provides a detailed account of the financial state of the country at the beginning of the year. The report states that the country is in a sound financial position, with a strong and stable currency. It also mentions the recent increase in the national debt, and expresses confidence that the country will be able to manage the debt effectively.

3. The third part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the Interior, dated January 1, 1861. It provides a detailed account of the state of the country's natural resources, including land, minerals, and water. The report states that the country has a vast and rich natural resource base, and that the government is committed to managing these resources in a sustainable and responsible manner.

4. The fourth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the War, dated January 1, 1861. It provides a detailed account of the military forces of the country, including the Army, Navy, and Marine Corps. The report states that the country has a strong and capable military, and that the government is committed to maintaining the military's readiness and effectiveness.

5. The fifth part of the document is a report from the Secretary of the State, dated January 1, 1861. It provides a detailed account of the country's foreign relations, including its relations with other countries and international organizations. The report states that the country is committed to maintaining a policy of peace and cooperation with other nations, and that the government is working to strengthen its diplomatic ties.

A rather curious situation exists today in connection with the course of study in the high schools in relation to the requirements for admission to the colleges and also in relation to the fitting of students for a vocation not necessitating a college education. After many discussions between college and high school faculties and many protests by the later, the high schools of the Middle West and in New York City are asserting themselves against the restrictions of their work by the requirements of the college (2:82).

To remedy the defects which past college dominance of the high schools had produced, Superintendent Young recommended that, beginning with the school year 1910-1911, two-year vocational courses of adequate scope and intensity be instituted in all high schools to meet the needs of those students who would seek employment either at the end of the two years or after completing a full four-year technical program. At the same time, the superintendent, who may well be credited with the first formal expression of the idea for a Chicago junior college, stated the following hope:

...[T]hat in course of time, the two years of vocational work in all high schools will be so well done that Crane, Lane, and a technical school in the South Division [not then in existence] will receive those pupils who wish to continue their vocational work after two years and will give them advanced technical training beyond that now offered in the technical high schools of Chicago [Crane and Lane] (2:83).

What seems to have happened at this time, however, is that, instead of agreeing to institute the superintendent's



plan in September 1910, the Board decided to form a committee to study the proposal. At any rate, a committee--called the Committee Appointed to Consider Equipment of General High Schools for Advanced Technical Work--was formed. Headed by Principal William J. Bogan of Lane Technical High School, it had completed its investigation by August 10, 1911. On that date, Principal Bogan, stating that the cost of equipping all general high schools for advanced technical work would be prohibitive, recommended that the regular high schools offer only the first two years of vocational training, that the first two years then offered in Crane and Lane be discontinued, and that, in these latter two schools, two-year postgraduate programs be added. The idea was that students could decide during their first two years of high school whether they wished to pursue a technical course. If they wished to continue their training after having taken two years of introductory work, they could then transfer to either Lane or Crane, where they could both complete their four-year high school work and, if they desired, take two additional years of postgraduate training (3:110).

Since the Committee's recommendation was approved,¹⁰ both Crane and Lane Technical High Schools started offering

¹⁰Fretwell states that the plan for the postgraduate programs was not formally approved until 1912, and that Principals Bogan and Barthof, while they had permission to introduce the postgraduate programs in 1911, did so entirely under their own initiative, without any orders or encouragement from the Board or the superintendent (22:46). This view, however, cannot be supported by the Minutes, which make

postgraduate courses in the school year 1911-1912, Senn School becoming the third planned postgraduate technical school in 1914.¹¹ Unfortunately, however, it is impossible to determine from the available records whether the first two years of high school work at Lane and Crane were, according to the plan, eliminated during the same year. What is known, though, is that the idea of having students transfer to Crane and Lane after completing the regular high school vocational courses was abandoned at the end of the 1912-1913 school year, and that from this time on Crane offered both a four-year high school program and two years of postgraduate classes. The 59th Annual Report for the year ending June 1913, contains this statement:

. . . [T]he experience of two years has proved beyond doubt that the plan referred to is a failure. Pupils will not leave the local schools to enter the technical schools for the last two years of the course, as the school ties are too difficult to break. The technical schools must be their own feeders if they would live. Unless they are allowed to have pupils in the first and second years, there will be none in the third and fourth years (4:364).

it fairly clear that the Committee's recommendations were formally approved on August 10, 1911, and that both the two-year vocational classes in the regular high schools and the postgraduate programs of Lane and Crane were started in 1911 according to the Board's plan.

¹¹Superintendent Young's original plan had been to establish the third technical school in the southern part of Chicago (2:83). Why Senn, located in the extreme north-eastern part of the city, was chosen is not clear, though economy was probably a significant consideration.



It can easily be imagined that, when the transfer plan was abandoned at this time, the postgraduate programs at Lane and Crane might similarly have been dropped. That they were, instead, retained was probably due mainly to the personal influence of Principal Bogan of Lane. Apparently, he used considerable persuasion to justify the continued existence of these programs. The 59th Annual Report quotes him as making this statement: "Notwithstanding the disadvantages that usually accompany the efforts of pioneer institutions, these college courses have been very successful. With additional equipment and room for expansion, the growth in membership will be steady and rapid" (4:262).

Doubtlessly, too, Principal William J. Bartholf of Crane backed up Principal Bogan. While little information regarding his role in the development and early preservation of the postgraduate programs could be found, the Board of Education's 1961 anniversary booklet pays tribute to Bartholf as follows:

. . . [M]ost influential in its [Crane's] growth was its leader, William J. Bartholf: his tenacity in maintaining the post high school work, his idealism in recognizing that America's wealth is in her youth of ability, his courage in opposing the foes of expanded educational opportunity kept the junior college alive. On the west side of Chicago he had often seen needy youth of ability, and nothing could weaken his determination to make higher education freely available to ambitious and able youth (11:3).

In light of this characterization, it is most probably that Principal Bartholf, like Principal Bogan, exerted a strong personal influence, not only in the way of preserving the postgraduate schools at a critical time, but also in the way of encouraging deserving young people to remain in Crane Technical High School and also to continue with postgraduate work after their graduation. The fact that Crane grew faster than Lane, however, should not be taken to mean that Bartholf was more effective than Bogan, who later became superintendent. As has already been suggested, the increased enrollment of Crane over Lane can be explained mainly on the basis of Crane's more favorable geographic location within Chicago.

Negative Influences. Though the positive internal influences, strengthened by forces in the outer environment, were obviously sufficiently strong to keep Crane Junior College in existence and to keep its enrollment rising, there were serious internal weaknesses during the experimental period. While a number of factors might be listed, all of them can be generalized as one main negative influence: lack of sufficient planning and control. This defect was manifested mainly by the failure of either the centralized or decentralized administrations to formulate objectives and policies for the postgraduate schools. Consequently, they very quickly became something quite different from what the superintendent originally had planned.

It has been pointed out that the original idea for offering postgraduate work at Crane and Lane stemmed from



Superintendent Young's firm conviction that the regular high schools, designed primarily to satisfy college admission requirements, were failing to meet the vocational needs of large numbers of poor immigrant students who lacked the opportunity to go to college. The reorganization plan, conceived at least as early as 1909 and put into effect in 1911-1912, was designed to help the Chicago schools escape from the domination which colleges and universities had assumed over the high school curricula.

Yet very quickly, both Crane and Lane came to emphasize the college transfer function. The very thing which Superintendent Young had complained about before reorganization--unhealthy domination of the schools by institutions of higher education--came to prevail at Crane and Lane. According to Steward, whose statement can be verified by other evidence,¹² Crane's courses were organized

¹²Among this evidence is the 1916 Crane Junior College "Catalog," a circular of four pages now in the personal archives of Mrs. V. L. Cooley, current clerk at Crane Junior College. The "catalog" shows that Crane postgraduate work as being organized in four departments, as follows: (1) engineering, (2) pre-medical, (3) pre-legal, and (4) liberal arts. The Catalog states that "The courses offered at Crane Junior College are as nearly equivalent to the corresponding courses at the State University as is practicable. As a result of planning with the authorities of the State University, courses successfully completed at the Crane Junior College are credited at the State University and students are enabled to proceed with the work of the junior year at the State University on exactly the same basis as students who spend their first two years there" (17:3-4). Unfortunately, the Catalog gives no statistics on the actual number of Crane graduates who had gone on to the University of Illinois or other institutions of higher learning.



"under their [that of the University of Illinois] direction and under very close inspection of the faculty of the University of Illinois" (21:430). Thus, the original idea of Superintendent Young as to the function of the postgraduate technical schools should serve failed to materialize. It is also clear that both the administration of the school system and the administrations of the two technical high schools did not formulate explicit objectives and policies to guide the development of the programs. "There seems," a writer was later to note, "to have been no official formulation of objectives and purposes, either in the records of the Board of Education or within the institution itself" (19:299).

It seems obvious that after the postgraduate programs were instituted Principals Bogan and Bartholf were given much freedom to develop them as they saw fit. While decentralization of authority has its advantages, particularly in an enormously complex school system such as Chicago had in 1911,¹³ some centralized control is necessary in the interest of coordination. One of the best means of securing needed coordination and control in a decentralized system is that of formulating broad objectives, policies, and standards by which the performance of decentralized units

¹³In 1911, the Chicago City School system included 258 elementary schools, 22 high schools, and 1 normal school with daily attendance exceeding 300,000. Teaching these pupils was a corps of teachers (814 in the high schools alone) responsible to a superintendent aided by three assistants. The superintendent, in turn, was responsible to a Board with an even number of 22 members (3:59).



can be evaluated. Without such objectives and controls, there is an unfortunate tendency toward excessive individual interpretation resulting in much deviation from original planning.

In view of the socio-economic status and vocational ambitions of most of the students who attended Crane Technical High School, one cannot help believing that the emphasis upon the transfer function of the postgraduate school defeated the purposes for which the extended program was originally designed. The emphasis upon meeting the requirements of the University of Illinois and of other institutions of higher learning was inconsistent with the social realities of the Near West Side and may have been one of the principal reasons why so many students, after giving the program a brief trial, dropped out. Greater emphasis upon developing a terminal program fitted to the occupational needs of immigrant youth, most of whom had very little chance of going to a university, might have made a great difference in the graduation statistics for the experimental period.

Summary Generalizations

With both external and internal influences during the experimental period now examined, an attempt may now be made to answer the three questions set forth at the beginning of the analysis.



Major Influences Affecting Initiation. The first question posed--"Why was Crane Junior College initiated in the first place?"--is not too difficult to answer in light of the facts presented above. Considering the fact that Chicago at the beginning of the second decade of the twentieth century was the nation's second largest city and was faced with a tremendous problem of assimilating a large foreign-born group into an industrial society, and considering, further, the fact that by this time the junior college idea had been tested and found to be workable in other, much smaller locations, and that the movement had received considerable publicity in educational circles it is by no means surprising that the Crane, Senn, and Lane postgraduate programs were initiated. It would have been more remarkable, indeed, had Superintendent Young not conceived of postgraduate technical programs. And yet, the importance of her insight into the vocational needs of immigrant youth lacking the opportunity to go to college must not be minimized as a key internal influence serving as a stimulus to action.

Major Influences Affecting Rapid Growth of Enrollment. There is nothing too surprising, either, about the increase of enrollment which began almost immediately at the Crane postgraduate school and which continued throughout the experimental period. Again, external forces were of primary importance, the principal ones being the following: (1) a tremendous number of high school graduates and of youth aged 18, 19, and 20 to serve as a source of

postgraduate students; (2) the residence in Chicago, and particularly in the Near West Side, of a large number of recently immigrated Russians, who, because of their value system emphasizing education were particularly motivated to avail themselves of the opportunity for tuition-free higher education. Internally, perhaps, the greatest stimulus was Principal Bartholf's personal encouragement of deserving young people to stay in school. The sheer size of the Chicago's population of high school graduates, however, would have virtually guaranteed a large and rapidly growing enrollment for the only tuition-free institution of higher learning in the city.

Major Influences Affecting Small Graduation

Classes. With respect to the last question--"Why did Crane Junior College fail to achieve much success in terms of graduating-class size?"--both external and internal forces were relevant. A point to be stressed is that a very large proportion of the students who enrolled at Crane were from foreign-language and culturally-deprived home environments, if, indeed, they had not themselves been born in foreign lands. Doubtlessly, too, many of them suffered from severe financial pressures. Under such conditions, it is understandable why the drop-out rate tended to be somewhat high.

The failure of many enrolled students to complete the full two-year course is rendered even more understandable by the fact that, somewhat inconsistently with the socio-economic backgrounds and vocational ambitions of most of the students, the postgraduate work at Crane was planned

The first part of the paper discusses the importance of the study and the objectives of the research. It also outlines the methodology used in the study and the results obtained. The second part of the paper discusses the implications of the study and the conclusions drawn from the research. It also provides a summary of the findings and a list of references.

The study was conducted in a laboratory setting and involved the use of a series of tests to measure the performance of the system. The results of the tests were compared to the theoretical predictions and the conclusions drawn from the study were based on the comparison of the results.

The study found that the system performed well under the conditions tested and that the theoretical predictions were generally in good agreement with the experimental results. The study also found that there were some areas where the system could be improved and that further research was needed in these areas.

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mainly for the benefit of those who intended to transfer credits for advanced standing at the University of Illinois or other institutions of higher learning. There was a basic inconsistency between the operation of Crane as a tuition-free institution catering to immigrant youth with little chance of ever going to universities and the transfer-orientation emphasis of its curriculum. This inconsistency probably was one of the main factors explaining the high drop-out rate at Crane during the experimental period.

During the 1920's, representing the second or rapid-growth period, Crane Junior College continued to function under the leadership of President Bartholf, assisted by Dean George C. Heritage. While ending the experimental period in 1919 is, therefore, somewhat arbitrary in one sense, the 1920's did represent a distinct phase in the development of Crane Junior College. The next section considers the growth pattern and other aspects of change during this period.

The Rapid-growth Period, 1920-1921 to 1924-1930

The period considered as Stage II in the history of Crane Junior College includes the school years 1920-1921 through 1929-1930. This period represents a distinct phase in the development of Crane Junior College and is characterized by two main aspects of progress or development. One of these was the rapid increase both of enrollment and of graduating classes; the other, paralleling this growth, was a decline in quality.

The first aspect, rapid growth, is clearly illustrated by Chart 10. As illustrated, total enrollment climbed swiftly from less than 600 in 1920 to more than 5,000 in 1929. At this time, there were 163 public junior colleges in existence in the United States but only Crane had as many as 5,000 students. Indeed, only four other institutions had enrollments between 1,000 and 2,000, and 111 of the public junior colleges, or about 68 percent, had enrollments of less than 200 (18:23). In each of its five departments, Crane enrolled "more students than are to be found in many entire institutions of junior college rank" (19:34). In short, by the end of the second period (indeed, long before that time), Crane was the veritable giant among American public junior colleges.

As in the experimental period, however, growth in terms of students graduating lagged behind growth measured by enrollment. Chart 10 also shows graduating-class size in relative terms climbing slowly until after 1925 when there was a sudden spurt upward which continued unchecked until the 1929-1930 school year.

As for the other aspect of development considered, decline in quality, the best evidence to substantiate this is the fact that, in April, 1930, the North Central Association, which had accredited Crane in 1917, dropped its accreditation. Many deficiencies were noted. These centered around "(a) policy relating to admissions, (b) teaching load, (c) internal organization, (d) inadequacy of physical plant and facilities, (e) class size, (f) library, (g) lack of adequate records, and (h) general tone" (9:16).



Number of Students

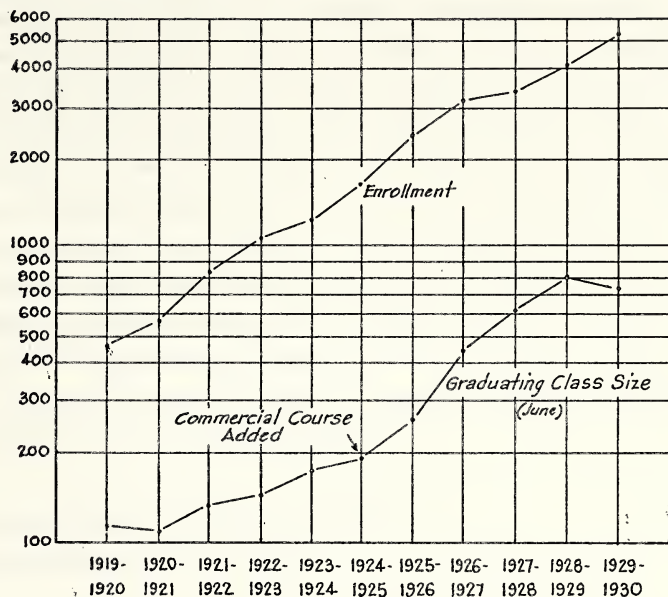
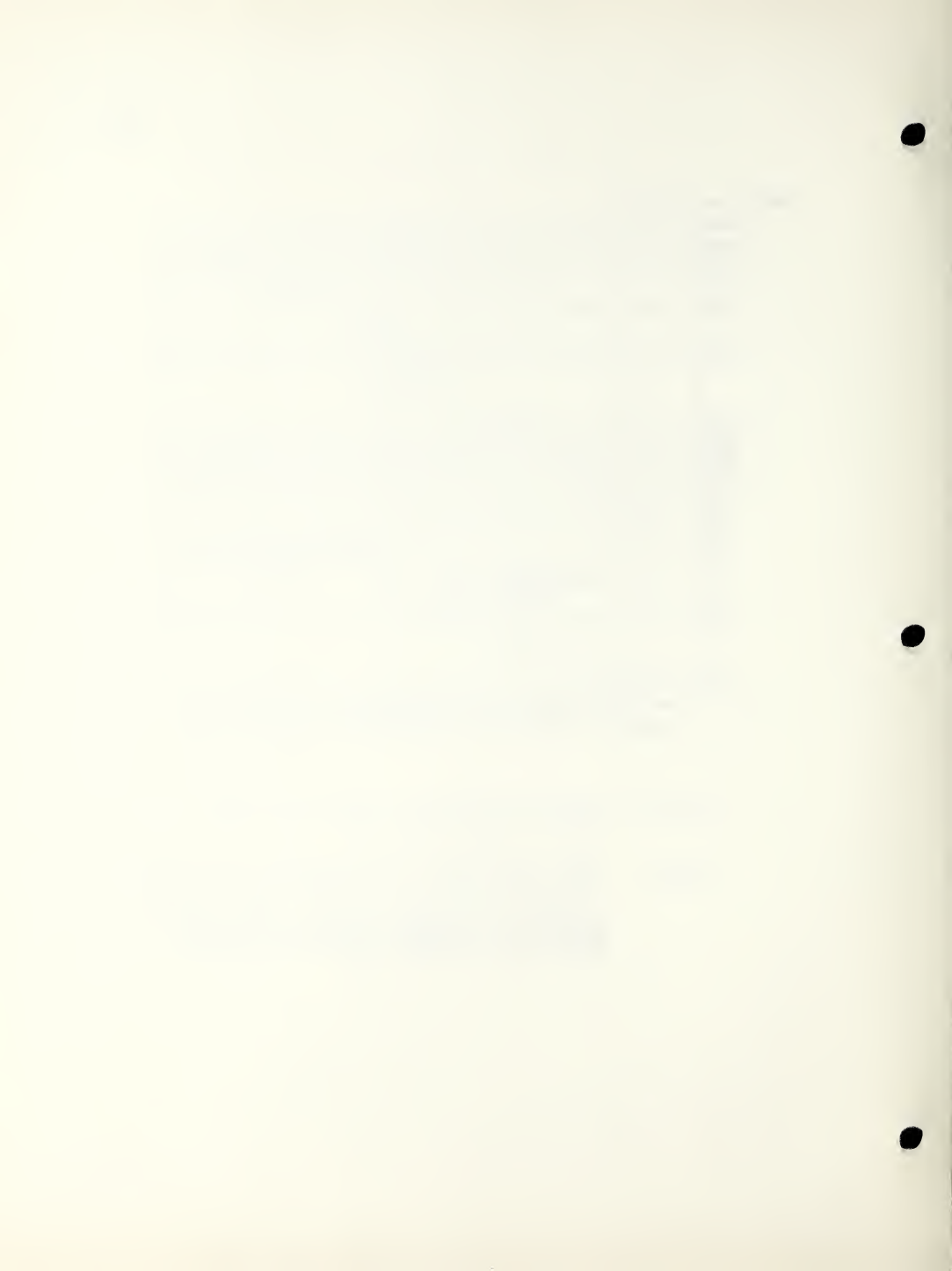


Chart 10. Students Enrolled and Graduated at Crane Junior College, 1919-1930

Source: Data taken from E. S. Evenden and F. B. O'Rear, "Higher Education in the Public School System," in George B. Strayer, Director, Report of the Survey of the Schools of Chicago, Illinois, Vol. II, pp. 295-296, 298.



In view of the broad developmental pattern presented, an analysis of relevant influences should attempt two things. First, it should attempt to answer questions relative to the first aspect of development, rapid growth in enrollment and graduating-class size. Secondly, it should attempt to determine the major influences which brought about a lowering in the quality of the Crane Junior College program between 1920 and 1930. Consequently, the organizational plan of the analysis departs somewhat from the analytical scheme used in the previous studies. An analysis, therefore, will be made first of the growth patterns and then an analysis of the decline in quality of the Crane program.

Major Influences Affecting Growth in Enrollment and Graduates

For the first aspect of development, the pertinent questions to be answered include: (1) Why did enrollment continue to advance so steadily and rapidly throughout the period 1920 to 1930?, (2) Why did the number of students graduating increase slowly between 1920 and 1925?, and (3) Why did the size of graduating classes increase rapidly after 1925?

External Influences. Very probably external forces were more important than internal influences in stimulating both enrollment and number of graduates between 1920 and 1930. The following two external factors, or groups of factors, are believed of especial importance:

(1) The macro educational, economic, and social influences which stimulated college attendance in general during the prosperous and optimistic 1920's.

(2) Greater assimilation of the population served by Crane during the 1920's than during the preceding experimental period.

After a short but severe recession in 1920-1921, the prosperous 1920's began. During this decade, as is noted in Chapter II, there was a great upsurge of college attendance generally, and doubtlessly Crane, like most other institutions, felt the impact of the new emphasis upon higher education. Although Chicago was not a center of automobile production, the new automotive industry required huge quantities of steel and thus stimulated the Chicago economy. Despite the fact that in the 1920's Chicago became especially famous for its New Orleans jazz (large numbers of Negroes had migrated to Chicago during World War I), for its bootlegging, and for its gangsterism,¹⁴ there was also, during this same time, much serious attention given to culture and education. By the end of the decade at least, considerable numbers of Crane graduates were going on to other institutions to earn a degree. This fact is clearly shown by University of Chicago records,

¹⁴Much of the gangsterism was centered in the Near West Side near Crane. It was in this area that Al Capone carried on his principal bootlegging activities (32:28). On the other hand, this is the same area in which Jane Addams maintained Hull House, a pioneering social innovation aimed at improving the lot of the disadvantaged (32:28).

which show 349 Crane graduates transferring to the University in 1929 with a grade-point ratio of 3.1 (18:269). The educational emphasis is also suggested by the fact that, at the very beginning of the Stage II period, the superintendent of the Chicago schools, Superintendent Peter A. Mortenson, believed that Crane should aim at becoming a four-year city college (7:24).

Macro influences such as these would help to account both for the fact that enrollment increased tremendously between 1920 and 1930 and also why more and more students remained to complete their work from Crane. After 1925, which marked the real beginning of the "boom" period, the spirit of the times was most conducive to growth in college attendance and completion.

Added to these influences was the fact that the population from which Crane drew its students was considerably more assimilated in the latter part of the 1920's than it had been during the experimental period. Many of the students who attended and graduated from Crane during the last part of the 1920's had foreign-born parents, but the number and proportion of foreign-born students had been declining year by year, for after 1910 very few immigrants entered Chicago. By 1932, of some 3,455 students attending Crane, only 268, or 8.3 percent, had been born in a foreign country though 64 percent of all students had foreign-born fathers while about 60 percent had foreign-born mothers (19:310).

The greater assimilation, implying an increased facility in the use of the English language, would have been an encouragement both for entering and for staying in Crane. Doing junior college work undoubtedly was much less difficult for those students enrolled in the late 1920's than it was for the student body during the experimental period.

Internal Influences. Supplementing these external positive forces were at least two internal influences to encourage large enrollments and a greater ratio of graduates. These are seen as follows:

(1) Expansion of the curriculum in 1925 so as to give Crane a terminal-type course;

(2) Extremely liberal admission policies which encouraged even students from outside Chicago to enroll.

In 1925 Crane underwent a significant expansion of its curriculum. Prior to this time it had continued to offer the highly transfer-oriented four-department curricula of Literature and Arts, Engineering and Architecture, Pre-Legal, and Pre-Medical, but afterwards it had, in addition, a Department of Commerce and Business Administration. The latter work of junior college level had first been offered in 1919 at Medill High School (about one and one-half miles southeast of Crane), where, between that date and 1925, some 394 students had enrolled, or an average of about 66 per year (33:43). Apparently in the interest of economy, the program was merged with Crane starting with the school year 1925.



With the merger, Crane became the only junior college in the United States which offered a general business curriculum, and in 1929 it was still the only institution offering such a program. The curriculum included such specialized courses as accounting, business correspondence, banking and finance, business administration, with electives in advertising, business law, statistics, labor problems, personnel work, foreign trade, and railway transportation also being available. As the nearest thing to a terminal course offered, it apparently became quite popular and doubtlessly contributed to the lowering of the drop-out rate after 1925. In February 1932, there were 593 students enrolled in the Department of Commerce and Business Administration. They accounted for 17.2 percent of all students, or for a higher proportion than either the Engineering, Pre-Med, or Pre-Law programs, though they were outnumbered more than two to one by the 1,340 students in the Literature and Arts Curriculum (19:304).

The other major internal influences which helped to keep enrollment high during the 1920's was the very liberal admissions policy. Apparently few students were refused admission to Crane, and by the end of the decade the enrollment came to include even students who had graduated from high schools outside Chicago. The huge enrollment of 5,497 in 1929-1930 included, for example, 920 boys and 296 girls, or 1,216 students in all, who had come from outside the city (19:296). While these students, of course, paid tuition, it is obvious that the



administration set few limits on the rapidly-increasing enrollment. With such liberal admissions policies, it is little wonder that enrollment soared during the 1920's.

Major Influences Affecting Decline
in Quality

According to President J. Leonard Hancock, who assumed the presidency of Crane after the retirement in the spring of 1930 of President Bartholf and his assistant George C. Heritage, the explanation for Crane's decline is as follows:

The dropping of Crane College of Chicago from the North Central Association was abrupt but not wholly unexpected. It had grown too fast for its clothes, and it suffered from malnutrition. The faculty knew the conditions acutely, but had not hoped for relief from a Superintendent and a Board which were under terrific pressure to economize (29:205).

The term "pressure to economize" is really the clue to Crane's entire history both during the experimental and the rapid-growth periods. It is true that the huge and rapidly growing enrollment did cause major problems for Crane. Indeed, all the deficiencies noted by the North Central Association represented, essentially, symptoms of overcrowding, which was acute even at the beginning of the second period and which became more critical as enrollment continued to increase. Yet, large enrollments and rapid

growth need not by themselves have resulted in a decline of quality. Quality and size both might have been achieved had it not been for the constant need by the Board to economize.

This problem, it appears, was a perennial one. As was noted in the experimental-period analysis, the need to economize was the explanation for the centralization of all Chicago junior college programs at Crane in 1916, and, to a very large extent, this early move caused the problems of the 1920's. Moreover, had it not been for the financial problems, the problem of crowding, and consequently the deficiencies in quality, could have been overcome at the start of the second period. The 1920-1922 66th Annual Report records Superintendent Peter A. Mortenson as stating that, even with some new construction in process (apparently additions to the existing plant), Crane High School would still be filled to capacity after the addition was completed. He recommended, therefore, that an entirely new plant, to be used only for the junior college, be built, but this recommendation, unfortunately, was never approved (7:24).

The Board's constant concern with economy might be considered an internal influence, but it was based on some harsh external realities. Financial problems stemmed from the start on the dependence of the Chicago schools on revenue from the local property tax which contributed about 90 percent of the system's revenue. Little state aid supplemented this. There simply was never

sufficient money for the junior college program the Board apparently desired.

From the start, the Board and the school's leaders had been dedicated to the ideal of a free junior college for all students. This ideal was to a great extent inconsistent with the tax system and the perennial shortage of funds which beset the Board of Education. In view of the financial realities, it might have been more prudent for the administration to seek ways to control enrollment so as to be able to offer a quality program to a smaller number of students rather than to provide a poor program for the many.

During the 1920's, as during the experimental period, there appears to have been a notable lack of planning. By this time at least, the Board and the junior college administration should have recognized the need for closer planning and control. Yet, until at least 1930, apparently little thought had been given to the purposes to be served by the junior college and how it should function as a part of the overall educational system of Chicago. Adequate planning, undoubtedly, would have spared the school the embarrassment of losing its accreditation in April, 1930.

It should be noted in concluding this analysis of Crane Junior College, that, despite the loss of accreditation in 1930, the end of the second period was marked by considerable optimism for the future. In a way, loss of accreditation provided a powerful stimulus

which, had it not been for other factors, would have had long-range beneficial effects. The report on conditions leading to the withdrawal of accreditation provided the kind of constructive criticism which Crane needed.

Accordingly, the second period ended with a considerable amount of activity designed to usher Crane into a new period of development. A chronology of important events taking place just before and after the loss of accreditation (which took place in April, 1930) is as follows:

January 14, 1930. The Board of Education at a meeting of this date voted to separate Crane from the high school and to organize it as an independent junior college with a budget separate from that of Crane Technical High School (8:2203).

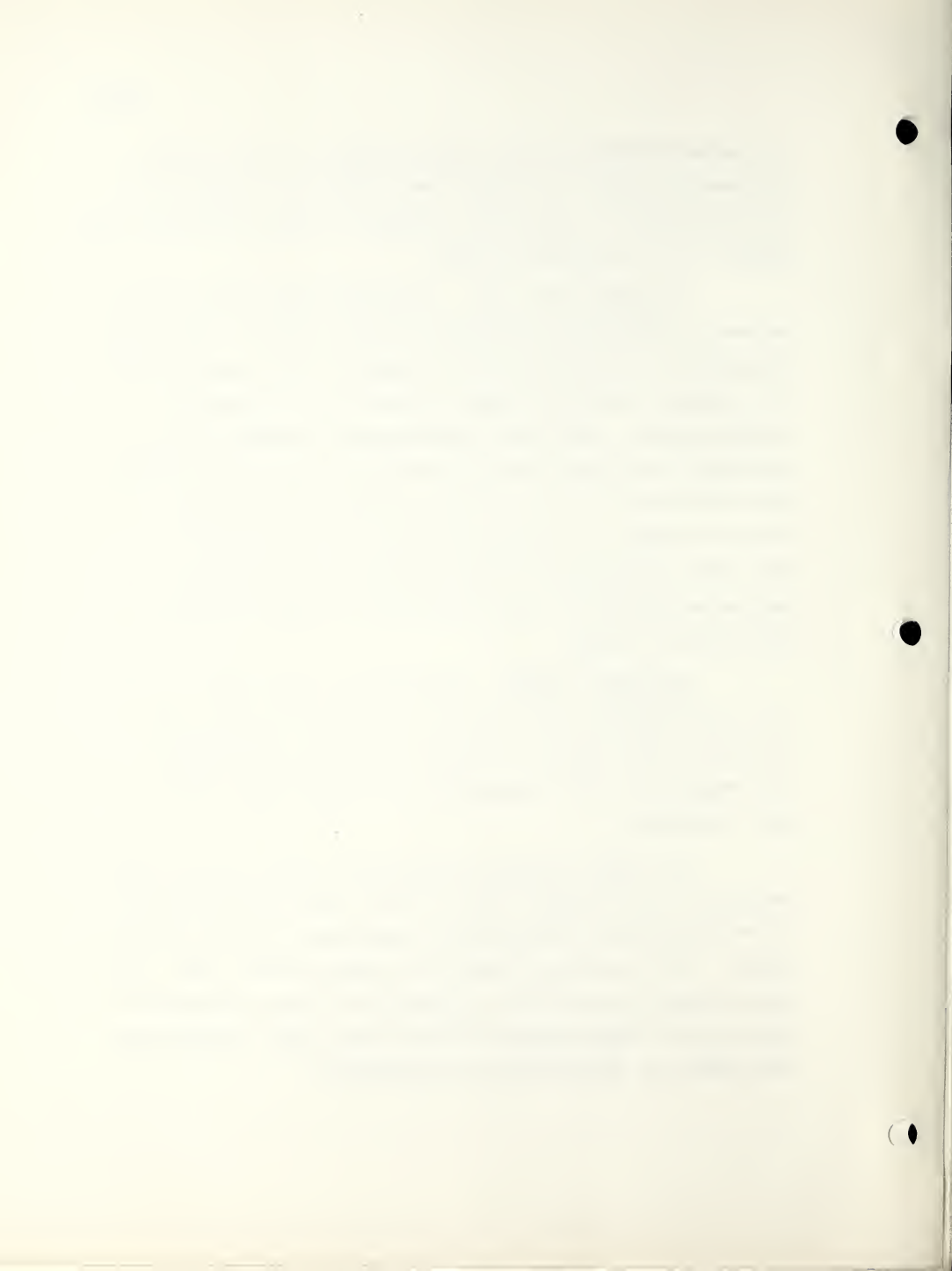
July 9, 1930. The Board of Education considered and approved recommendations by Dr. J. Leonard Hancock, acting president, aimed at overcoming deficiencies noted by the North Central Association. Among the important changes instituted were the following positions: (1) a dean of the college; (2) five assistant deans, or one for each department; (3) an assistant registrar; (4) a director of activities and publications; (5) a personnel adviser; (6) a director of physical education; and (7) miscellaneous positions including seven laboratory assistants, a head librarian, four assistant librarians, one junior clerk, and eight school clerks. At the same meeting, the Board approved the employment of Dr.

J. Leonard Hancock as the new president of Crane Junior College (9:15-16). At this time, William J. Bogan, one-time principal of the junior college at Lane Technical High School, was the superintendent.

September 24, 1930. Notwithstanding the serious economic conditions associated with the onset of the great depression, the Board voted to authorize the construction of a junior college building designed to accommodate 4,500 students. The Board appropriated \$15,000 for the necessary preliminary surveys and the preparation of plans. The new school was to be built at Roosevelt Road and Central Avenue, a location which would have placed it some four miles west of the Near West Side Community and approximately five to six miles west of Crane Technical High School (21:29).

September, 1930. Apparently in an effort to control overcrowding until the new building could be constructed, Crane Junior College turned down 300 applicants for admission at the beginning of the 1930-1931 school year (25:5-11).

All these changes would seem to have given Crane prospects for a bright future, and, indeed, they resulted in overcoming the deficiencies associated with the second period. At its Chicago meeting of March 18-20, 1931, the North Central Association, praising the Crane administration for the improvements that had been made, readmitted the school to accreditation (16:566-567).

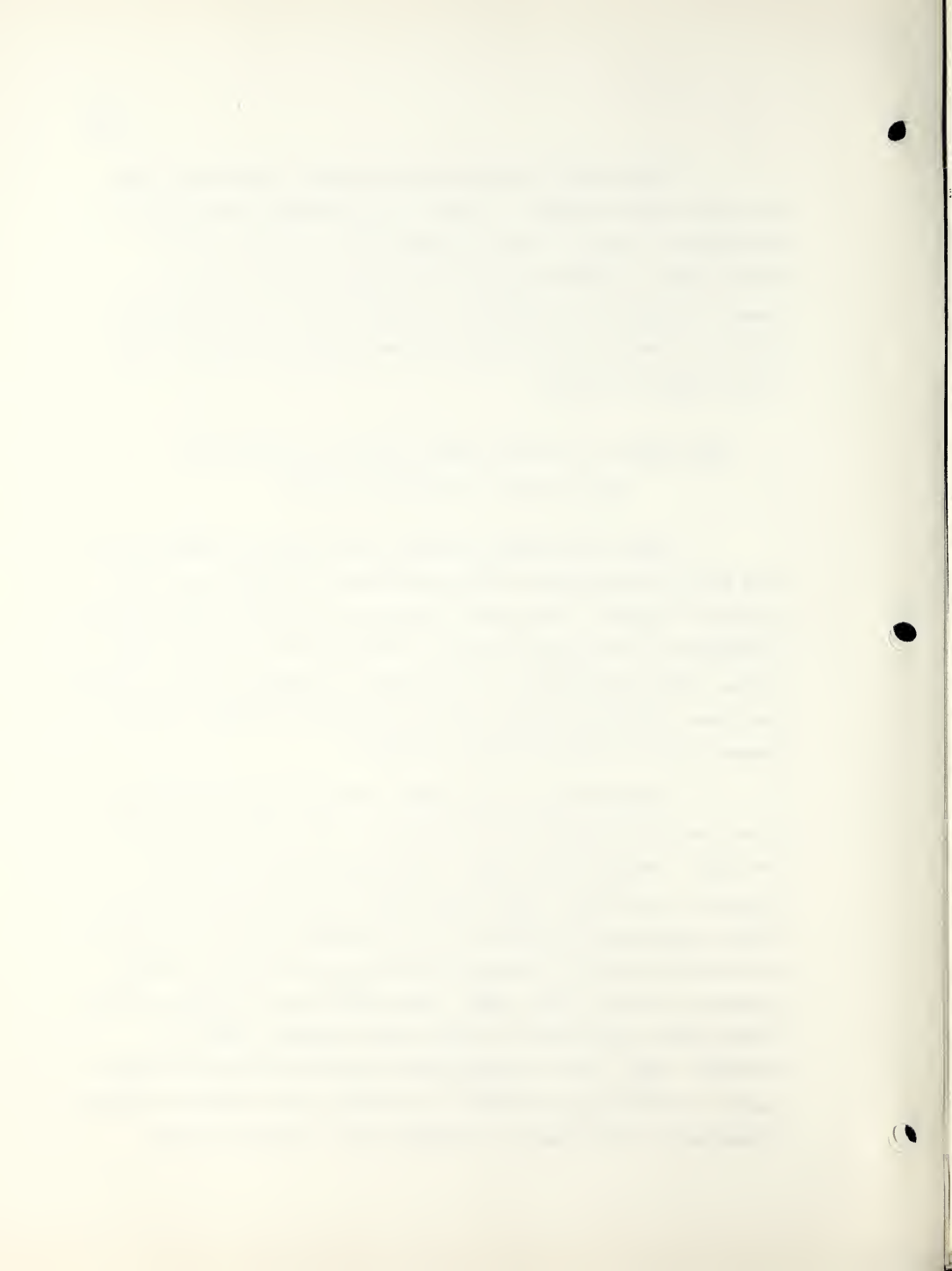


The events of the next few years, however, were to treat Crane harshly. While it is beyond the scope of the present study to make a detailed analysis of the development of Crane beyond the rapid-growth period, a short account of the school's demise and recent reactivation will help to round out the descriptive material on Crane Junior College.

The Demise of Crane Junior College during the Early Years of the Depression

While the superintendent, the Board of Education, and the new president were optimistic in 1930 as to the school's future, and almost entirely confident after rein-statement by the North Central Association in early 1931, Crane Junior College soon thereafter suffered from a series of blows coming from the outer environment which, within three years, were to spell its doom.

The history of the first blow, resulting from the strained finances of the City of Chicago, goes back to 1927. During that year, the State Tax Commission rejected the City's 1927 assessment for the property tax, which supplied 90 percent of the revenues for the schools. One result was the failure of the city to collect large portions of the 1928, 1929, and 1930 tax--a failure which, along with the effects of the stock market crash in October 1929, and the depression which quickly followed, made it extremely difficult to finance the Chicago schools. Speaking to the people of Chicago by a special radio

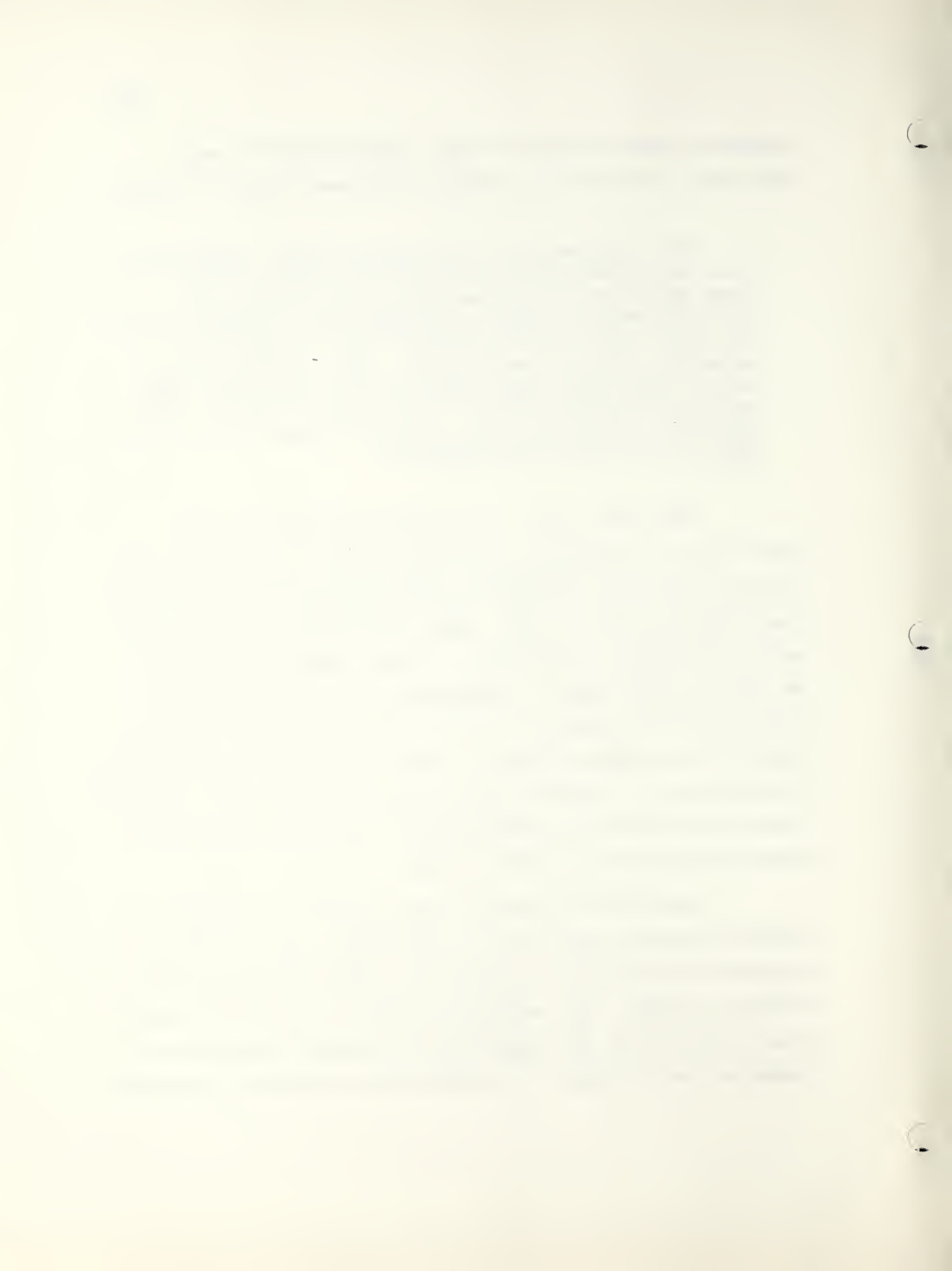


broadcast given on May 6, 1933, Superintendent Bogan described the financial troubles of these times as follows:

The troubles due to the stock market crash, the closing of the banks, and the real-estate debacle have been aggravated in Chicago by a reassessment of property which delayed the collection of taxes for over two years and by a "tax strike" by an aggressive minority group of tax evaders. Many millions of dollars of past due taxes have not been collected; 61% of the tax delinquents are rich men whose bills total \$10,000 or more; only 4% of the delinquents are in the \$300 or less class (12:130-131).

The State, too, was feeling the pinch of the depression. Accordingly, although the State supplied only a small part of the funds for operating the Chicago schools, the Illinois Senate in May, 1931, decided to check on supposed ineconomies in the use of state educational funds. As part of this plan, an independent research firm, the Cleveland Audit Bureau, was retained to make an investigation of the Chicago schools. After the report was submitted, the legality of operating Crane Junior College as a tuition-free institution financed by public funds was questioned in the Illinois Senate in June, 1931.

While this difficulty was overcome by passage of special enabling legislation in December, 1931, making it possible for Chicago to operate one, but only one, junior college (23:185), the publicity given to the issue seems to have crystallized the opposition of various conservative elements, among which one of the more outstanding was the



Chicago Daily Tribune. Beginning in November 1931, this publication began editorializing for the abandonment of Crane as a tax-supported institution and as a drain upon funds needed for schools below the college level.

Despite these bitter attacks and the desperate shortage of funds which plagued the city, the continuance of Crane would apparently have been assured had the Board remained in power. Salary cuts and other economies were part of the adaptation to realities made in the school years 1932 and 1933 after a proposition to charge tuition had been turned down. During this year, too, a group of educators and other persons headed by Dr. George Strayer made a comprehensive study of the Chicago School System. Noting that much of the trouble had been caused by an archaic tax system which could be improved to solve the financial problems, the Strayer Report concluded that, Crane was performing a needed function, that it definitely should be retained as part of the Chicago schools, and that, just as soon as possible, it should be moved into a building of its own and have its services expanded rather than retracted (19:295-323).

Unfortunately, however, the Chicago schools did not stay under the same Board. In February, 1933, one of the accidents of history occurred which defy prediction. On that date, Chicago's Mayor Anton J. Cermak, while in Florida with the new President-elect, was killed in an assassination attempt upon the life of Franklin D. Roosevelt. To replace him, the City Council elected Edward J. Kelly on April 13, 1933, who aligned himself with the



conservative elements which had become more and more vocal about the continued operation of Crane. A few months later, in May, 1933, Mayor Kelly appointed a conservative, James B. McCahey, as President of the Board of Education and also appointed five new members supporting the opposition movement. In July, 1933, Mayor Kelly appointed still two more members so that by now the opposition had seven of the Board's eleven positions. The death of Crane was assured. During the same month, on July 12, 1933, despite the Strayer report and a large amount of public support expressed for the continuance of Crane, the Board voted to discontinue the junior college and, thereafter, to use the building only for high school purposes (10:26).

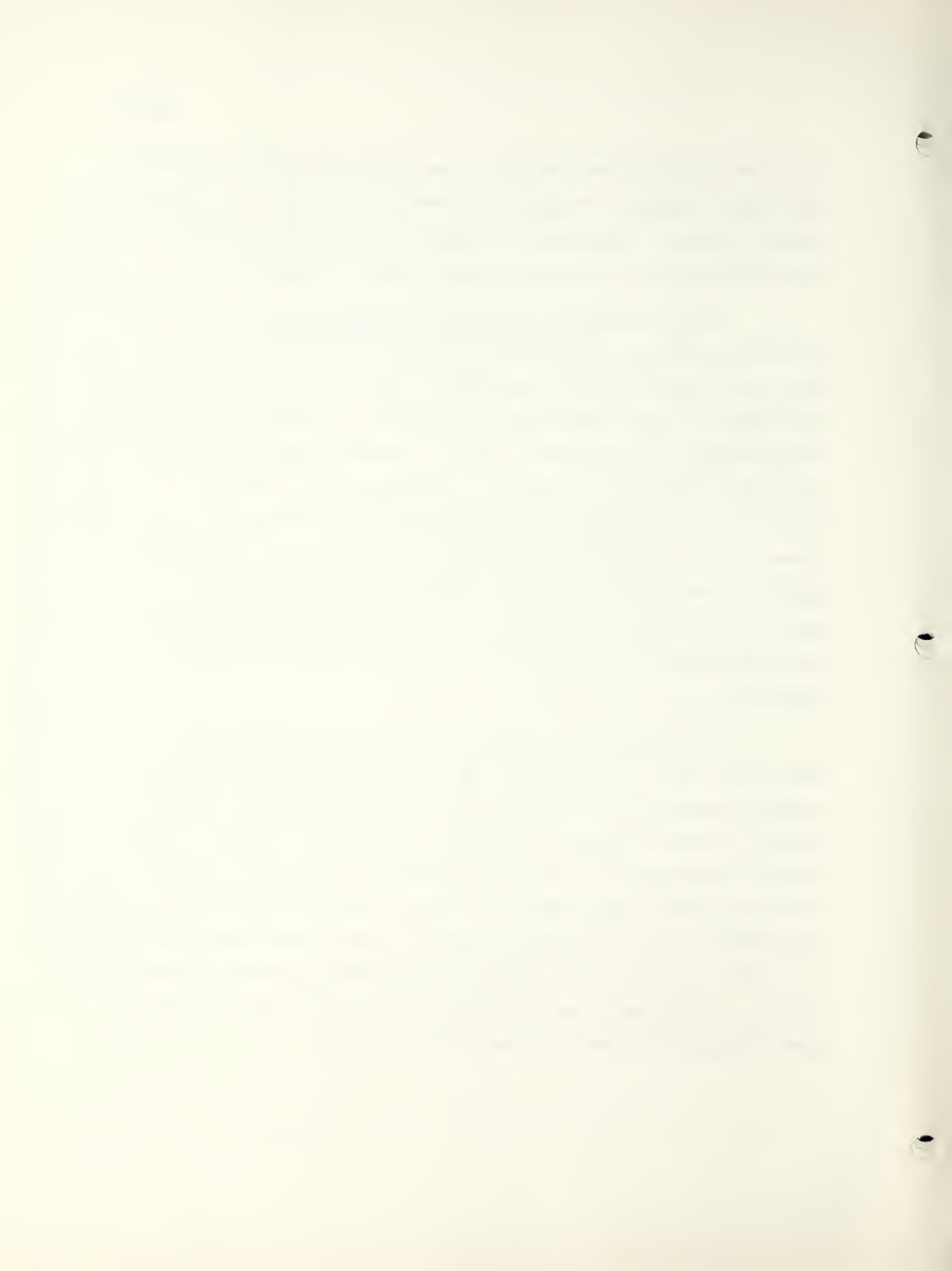
To record fully and completely all the history of the conflict which developed between the time of the assassination of Mayor Cermak and the closing of Crane the following July would require a thesis in itself--one which would be a worthwhile addition to the literature on American junior colleges. While it is certainly true that at this time the City of Chicago was in desperate financial condition, and while it is also true that the administration of Crane had made some tactical mistakes, it is a good hypothesis that the destruction of Crane, along with many other features of the Chicago school system, represented, in essence, a conservative reaction of the kind which had become more and more powerful during the somewhat unliberal 1920's--a reaction explained in Chapter II. During this time, as in a later reactionary period (the late 1950's), one of the favorite criticisms of the schools

The first part of the paper discusses the importance of the study of the history of the United States. It is argued that a knowledge of the past is essential for a full understanding of the present. The author then goes on to discuss the various factors which have shaped the development of the United States, including the influence of the British, the Spanish, and the French. He also discusses the role of the American people in the creation of the nation. The paper concludes by stating that the study of the history of the United States is a task of great importance, and that it is one which should be undertaken by all who are interested in the future of the country.

was that they did not provide real education but, instead, used the taxpayers' money for "fads and frills." According to the new conservative board, Crane Junior College was definitely an example of such "fads and frills."

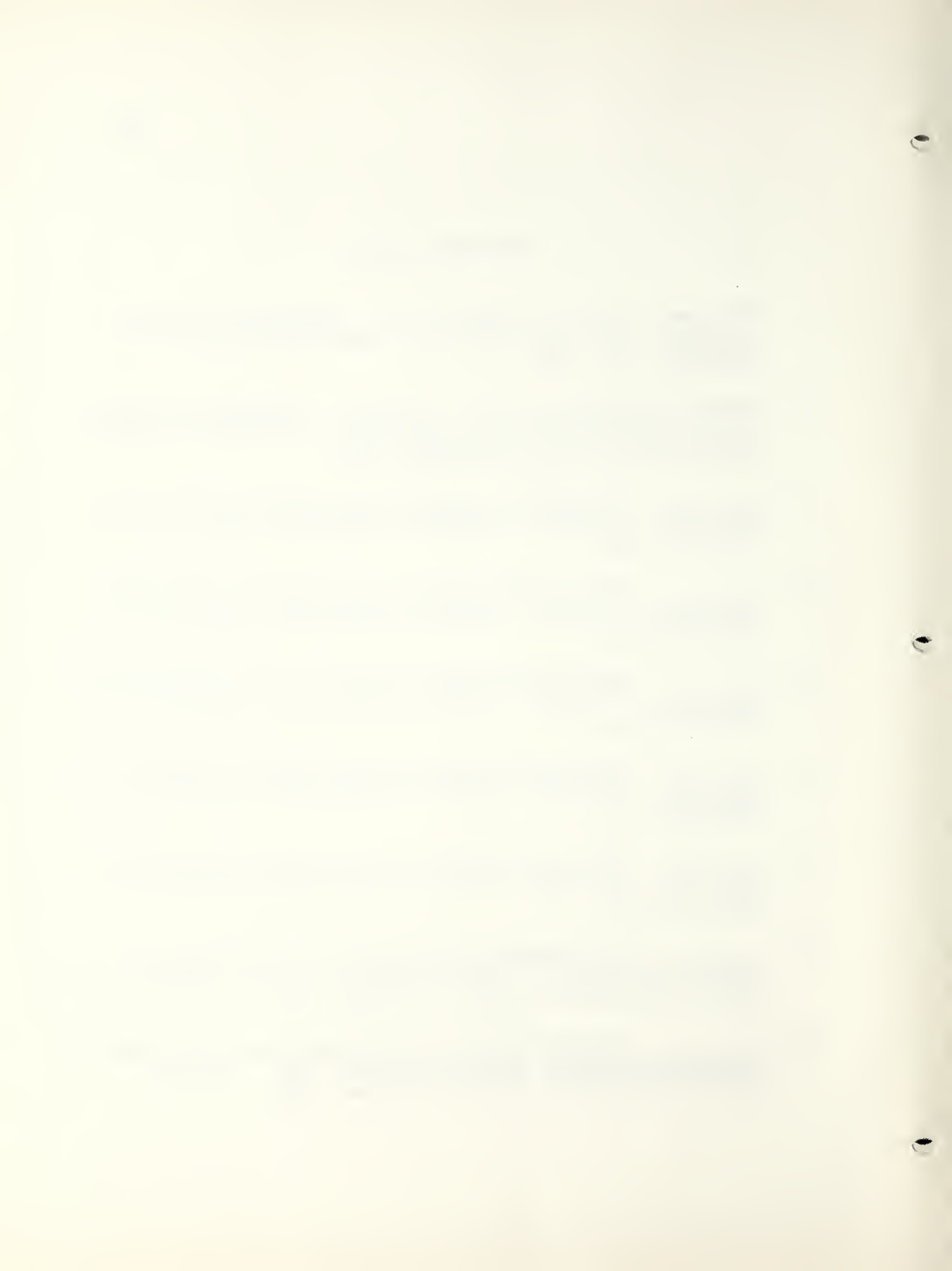
Public support of Crane and opposition to the arbitrary action of the Board became so vocal, however, that the Board shortly thereafter found it politically expedient to meet the public's demands. Crane was not reopened but in September 1934, a Chicago Junior College in three branches was opened. Consequently, the end result of retrenchment was, paradoxically, expansion. As a result of the closing of Crane, Chicago soon afterwards gained a new junior college program decentralized in a way to serve the needs of all students and to prevent the tremendous overcrowding which had been Crane's greatest problem.

With the reorganization, it was expected that the "old Crane" students would find a place at the Medill Branch located at the site of the former business administration junior college. Shortly afterwards, however, this branch was moved to the Herzl building. Here the branch remained until 1954 when by another move the branch was returned to the old Crane location in the Near West Side. It exists there today as the Crane Branch of Chicago City Junior College with many of its old problems still present and others of a newer variety also present.

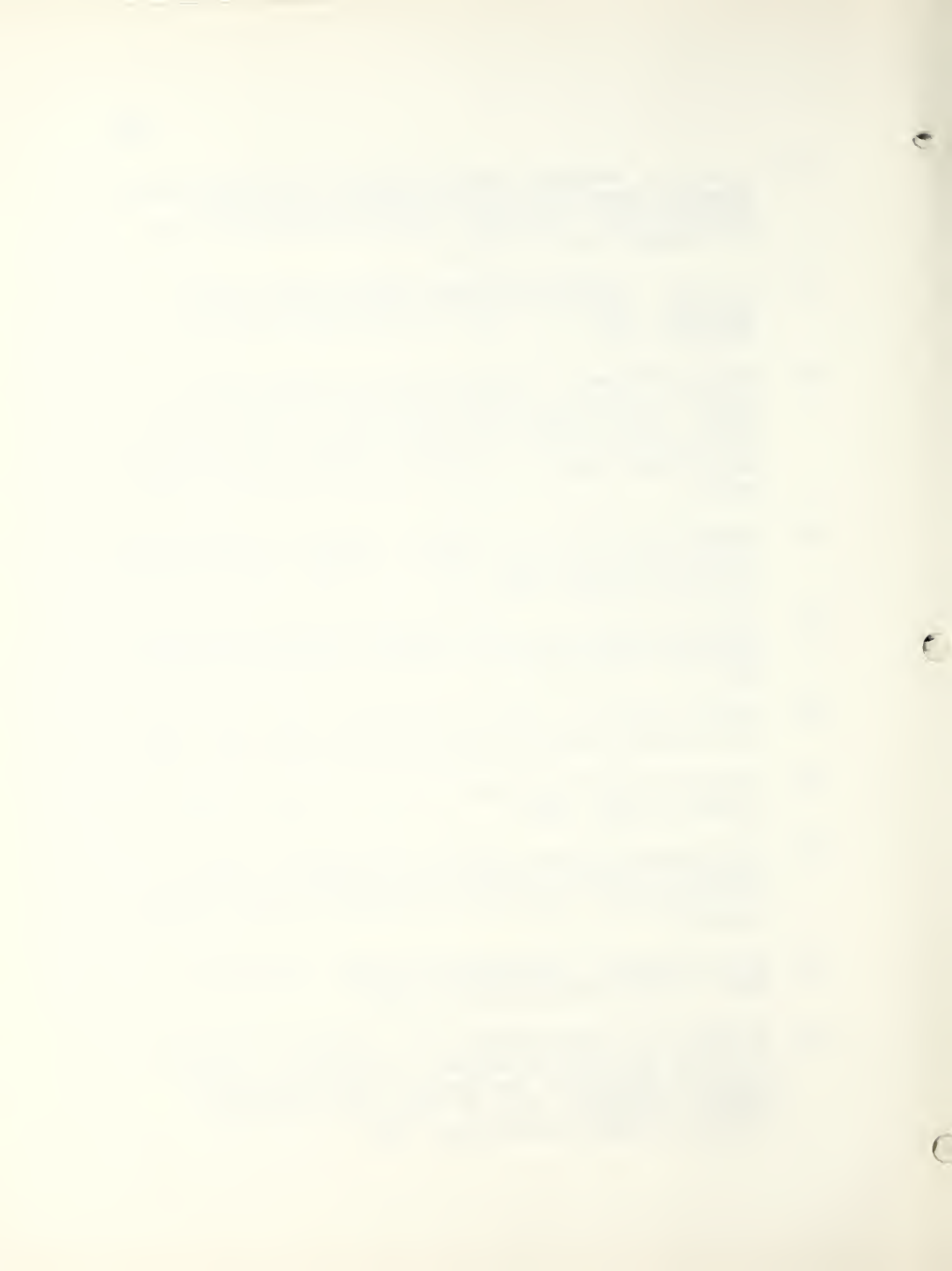


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CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY ANALYSIS OF DEVELOPMENTAL PATTERNS AND INFLUENCES

In the four preceding chapters of this study, analyses have been made both of macro influences on the development of American public junior colleges as a group during the first few decades of the twentieth century and also of micro influences affecting the development of three pioneering institutions--the junior college at Joliet, Illinois, the "junior college" at Goshen, Indiana, and the junior college at Crane Technical High School in Chicago. The present chapter is designed to summarize and to relate the major findings detailed in the previous analyses insofar as they reveal common developmental patterns and tendencies. Where it is possible to do so, the chapter also draws attention to findings which appear to have some relevance for understanding the development of public junior colleges under later, or more current, conditions.

Overall Developmental Patterns

As a first step in performing the analyses in this study, it was necessary to devise a method for identifying stages of junior college development. In identifying such

stages, Prescott's general Law of Growth, or "Curve of Growth" as it is sometimes alternately called, was used as a theoretical base. By this theoretical conception, the development of any institution which is "a direct function of population" (3:471) typically passes through four developmental stages:

- (1) a period of experimentation marked by slow growth and many failures;
- (2) a period of extremely rapid growth of the institution as it becomes an accepted part of the social fabric;
- (3) a period marked by the continued growth but at a rate much diminished below that evident during the second period;
- (4) a period of stability [or decline] (3:471-479).

On the basis of Prescott's Law of Growth, the early development of American public junior colleges as a whole was divided into two periods. Development was measured in terms of numbers of new junior colleges established. The first period was termed the "experimental period" while the other was termed the "rapid-growth period." These periods correspond closely with the first two stages identified by Prescott. No attempt was made, however, to trace junior college development beyond the year 1929--the emphasis of the study was limited to the origin and early development of public junior colleges. From growth statistics analyzed, it was concluded that the school years 1902-1903 through 1919-1920 represented the experimental period while the school years 1920-1921 to 1929-1930 were included in the rapid-growth period.



In the case studies of specific pioneering institutions, developmental patterns were similarly divided into periods corresponding with one or both of Prescott's first two phases. A study of enrollment statistics for Joliet Junior College suggested that the experimental period covered the school years 1902-1903 to 1918-1919 with the rapid-growth period beginning in 1919-1920. Because of the failure of Goshen to survive, its entire history was confined to the experimental period, or a period from 1904 to 1911, which was subdivided, for analytical purposes, into phases relating to initiation, early enthusiasm, and decline. For Crane, an analysis of membership, enrollment, and graduating-class statistics suggested that the college continued in the experimental period from the time of its origin in 1911 to 1919-1920. Following this was a period of extremely rapid growth, except for the depression years, which continued until the institution was terminated by arbitrary action of the Chicago Board of Education in 1933. For purposes of analysis, however, the rapid-growth period was limited to the years 1920-1921 to 1928-1929.

While Prescott's Law of Growth proved to be most useful in the present study, there is no implication here that all periods identified by Prescott can be validly applied to the development of all junior colleges established under current conditions. Although the three pioneering junior colleges studied very definitely did face problems of survival and thus conform closely to the Prescott theory, it is doubtful that modern junior colleges,



once established, face the same problems of continued existence as those of the early twentieth century. However, proposals to initiate new junior colleges, in themselves, partake of the nature of experiments and there is seldom any real assurance that such proposals will survive the test of public acceptance. Consequently, it may be possible to think of modern junior college planning as proceeding through a critical period prior to actual initiation. This may be the current equivalent of the experimental period recognized by Prescott in which actual survival of the plan is not certain.

Macro Influences Affecting the Development of American Junior Colleges to 1929

In the study of macro influences affecting the development of early American public junior colleges as a whole, it was concluded that a number of internal (that is, within the educational system as a whole) and external influences help explain why the earliest public junior colleges were initiated, why they survived as a class, and why they entered a phase of rapid development beginning after World War I. Along with these facilitating influences were negative forces which, at the same time, tended to restrict development so that growth was less than that which some educators, such as President Harper at the University of Chicago, had predicted. In balance, however, it appears that positive forces were sufficiently forceful to counteract the negative influences. Therefore, by 1920 at least,



the junior college movement had achieved a degree of acceptance to have grown, as Prescott would describe, into "the social fabric."

Among the important facilitating influences during the early or experimental period were, according to the analysis made in Chapter II, the following: (1) favorable support of the junior college idea by leaders in higher education, among whom the most important were Dr. William Rainey Harper at the University of Chicago and Dr. A. F. Lange of the University of California; (2) a corresponding trend among some high schools to extend their offerings to include some postgraduate work either of a high school or of a college level; and (3) the increasing importance and uncertain nature of secondary education at the turn of the century. These influences were labeled in Chapter II as positive internal influences, the rationale being that they represented facilitating forces within the American educational system as a whole.

To the above positive internal influences were added positive external influences including the following: (1) political system influences, such as the passage of permissive and other legislation bearing on junior colleges by various states between 1907 and 1917, along with the establishment of junior college standards by some state agencies and private accrediting groups; (2) economic system influences, the most notable of which were increased utilization of machine energy having the result of (a) giving young people more leisure to pursue education at the

The first of these is the fact that the
 data are not normally distributed. This is
 evident from the fact that the distribution
 is skewed to the right.

The second of these is the fact that the
 data are not independent. This is evident
 from the fact that the data are correlated.
 This is evident from the fact that the
 correlation coefficient is significantly different
 from zero.

The third of these is the fact that the
 data are not stationary. This is evident
 from the fact that the mean and variance
 are not constant over time. This is evident
 from the fact that the mean and variance
 are both increasing over time.

The fourth of these is the fact that the
 data are not homogeneous. This is evident
 from the fact that the data are not
 normally distributed. This is evident from
 the fact that the distribution is skewed to
 the right.

The fifth of these is the fact that the
 data are not independent. This is evident
 from the fact that the data are correlated.
 This is evident from the fact that the
 correlation coefficient is significantly different
 from zero.

higher levels, (b) creating a need for local technical education beyond that offered by the high school, and (c) fostering urban middle-class values which placed an emphasis upon education as a means of occupational success and upward social mobility; and (3) social system influences such as the geographical remoteness of most of the American population from institutions of higher learning at the beginning of the twentieth century, and, the general spirit of reform which encouraged Americans to experiment with new social institutions during the Progressive Era from about 1890 to the beginning of World War I.

Because of such influences, it was concluded in Chapter II, that the period 1902 to 1919 saw the origin as well as the survival of a number of public junior colleges. With the survival and apparent success of these pioneering institutions, a period of rapid growth began after World War I. Between 1920 and 1929, according to the analysis made in Chapter II, external influences were more important, more than likely, than internal forces, though both were of sufficient force to counter any negative forces tending to inhibit further development and growth. The major positive external influences were seen to be: a strong social trend in the direction of seeking higher education, accelerated usage of machine energy, continued urbanization of the population, the economic prosperity associated with the post-war period before 1929, and the widespread optimism concerning the future which characterized the 1920's. To these were added the example of the successful survival of pioneering junior



colleges, such as Joliet in Illinois, and a better understanding gained through research of the role of the junior college in the American educational system.

Most of the influences noted in Chapter II were mainly of historical importance. It may be noted, however, that the influences of expanded machine utilization and ever-increasing emphasis on the importance of education beyond the high school level are still quite relevant to the further development of American junior colleges. The role which institutions of higher education play in encouraging the development of junior colleges is still important, but, inasmuch as modern junior colleges no longer think of themselves as serving only a transfer function, this influence is probably less important now than it was during the first two decades of the twentieth century.

Micro Influences Affecting the Development of Three Pioneering Junior Colleges during Their Experimental Periods

In the case of all three pioneering junior colleges studied, a relevant question associated with the experimental period was: Why were these institutions started in the first place? Another question concerning experimental development was why the institutions, once started, survived or failed to survive. Finally, the experimental analysis was directed at answering the question of why,

for all three junior colleges, growth during this stage was either relatively slow or non-existent. These questions imply that it is logical to think of the experimental period for the three colleges studied as being divided into three phrases: (1) an antecedent phase, (2) an activation phase, and (3) an early trial stage. Influences which seem to have been commonly associated with each phase are summarized below.

Major Influences during the Antecedent Phase

One fact made clear by the analyses of the three pioneering junior colleges is that all of them had an antecedent phase which encouraged their later activation or initiation. An antecedent which was common to both Joliet and Goshen was the prior practice of offering some postgraduate work at the high schools. At Crane, there was a somewhat similar antecedent condition in that the superintendent of the Chicago schools was dissatisfied with the kind of education immigrant children were receiving in the secondary schools which were oriented to the needs of students who would continue their education at colleges and universities and not to the occupational needs of those who would not go on to college.

Perhaps these influences, which were most conducive to the ideation of a junior college, may be generalized as the existence of unmet needs. In the case of the three junior colleges studied, they were closely associated with

the condition of isolation which may be defined as a condition in which large numbers of college-age youth found it difficult, for one reason or another, to avail themselves of existing opportunities for getting an education beyond the high school level. Geographical isolation of the Joliet and Goshen communities from institutions of higher learning (an isolation which, today, can be understood best by remembering the transportation difficulties before the time of the automobile) created unmet needs which at first were partially fulfilled by the postgraduate programs. At Crane, isolation based upon another factor--the economic inability of most of Chicago's largely immigrant population to afford a college education--produced the unmet need which the superintendent hoped to fill by expanding the offerings of the technical high schools.

During the antecedent phase, another important influence common to all three schools seems to have been an awareness on the part of the school's leaders to some of the newer ideas about reorganization of higher education which were being promoted by university men such as Dr. William Rainey Harper at the University of Chicago. There can be no doubt that Superintendent Brown at Joliet and Superintendent Hedgepeth at Goshen were influenced before they actually initiated their extended fifth- and sixth-year programs by their cooperative associations with the University of Chicago and by their attendance at the annual autumn conferences on the campus. As for Superintendent Young at Chicago, she was not only aware of the



past cooperative program of the University of Chicago but, in addition, knew of the successful application of the junior college idea at Joliet and other places.

The common influence here may, perhaps, be generalized as awareness of trends in the wider educational environment. It is, of course, a close micro equivalent of the potent macro influence previously described as support of the junior college idea by institutions of higher learning and particularly by the University of Chicago.

One other common influence which helps to explain why Joliet, Goshen, and Crane were mentally conceived before they were activated is the fact that in all three institutions there was a degree of unused space. At both Joliet and Goshen a new high school building was being constructed at about the same time as the superintendents started thinking about an extended program. While no new building was constructed at Crane, it must be remembered that the Chicago postgraduate program was planned with the expectation that the first two years of high school work at Crane Technical High School would be terminated at the same time the junior college program was instituted. Consequently, all three schools were planned with the expectation that there would be no problems associated with the provision of facilities.

It would appear, then, that a combination of influences--unmet needs, awareness of trends in the wider educational environment, and unused space--helps to answer the question as why the three pioneering junior colleges

The first part of the paper discusses the importance of the study and the objectives of the research. It also outlines the methodology used in the study and the data sources.

The second part of the paper presents the results of the study and discusses the findings. It also compares the results with previous studies and discusses the implications of the findings.

The third part of the paper discusses the conclusions of the study and the recommendations for future research. It also discusses the limitations of the study and the strengths of the findings.

The fourth part of the paper discusses the implications of the study for practice and policy. It also discusses the role of the researcher in the study and the importance of the study for the field.

The fifth part of the paper discusses the conclusions of the study and the recommendations for future research. It also discusses the limitations of the study and the strengths of the findings.

The sixth part of the paper discusses the implications of the study for practice and policy. It also discusses the role of the researcher in the study and the importance of the study for the field.

were started. This generalization should not be interpreted to mean, however, that there was equal justification at all locations for considering a junior college. While it is true that there was at Goshen an unmet need or a demand as evidenced by the fact that some high school graduates had returned for postgraduate work, this unmet need or demand was relatively weak for the isolation associated with it was being overcome, at about the same time Superintendent Hedgepeth proposed the idea for the extended high school program, by the opening of Goshen College. The unmet needs at Goshen were so minimal, in fact, that it may well be concluded that the extension of the high school should not have been attempted. Unmet needs at Joliet and at Crane, in contrast, were relatively strong and a postgraduate program in each community was much easier to justify.

The generalizations made about influences which affected the development of the pioneering institutions during the antecedent phase perhaps have some current value. Certainly it would be safe to say that the existence of unmet needs, or the existence of a sufficiently strong demand for junior college services, is a condition favorable to those who would propose the opening of a new junior college, though it is to be pointed out that the unmet needs of today are likely to be quite different from those recognized by Superintendent Brown, Hedgepeth, and Young. It would seem safe to say, too, that the lack of demand, or the existence of only a weak demand, is a condition which suggests the need for caution in planning and promoting a



new junior college. Finally, the concept of isolation associated with unmet needs may still be relevant in some modern communities.

The influence of unused space which was so important at Joliet, Goshen, and Crane is unlikely to play much, if any, role in modern junior college formation. It was a common influence in the case of the three schools studied but it was, nevertheless, an influence peculiar to time and place.

Major Influences during the Activation Phase

During the actual activation phase--that is, during the time that the early postgraduate programs at Joliet, Goshen, and Crane were actually started--the dominant and common influences were almost entirely internal in nature, though Goshen provides a few exceptions. Except at Goshen, external influences were of little importance and even here the real force in getting the school established was of an internal nature.

All the three superintendents who initiated their respective postgraduate programs were individuals with their own unique personalities. In many ways, particularly in the case of Superintendent Brown and Superintendent Hedgepeth, they provide sharp contrasts. Yet, for all their differences, they had several important common characteristics: they were all persons who had faith in their ideas, who were able to convince lay board members of the soundness of these ideas, and who were willing to take a chance to



advance educational opportunities. Because they all did have these traits, their respective junior college programs were initiated. Although influences during the antecedent phase were important for these superintendents to consider before extending their high school programs, their own leadership qualities were necessary to turn thought into action. The three programs established--Joliet, Goshen, and Crane--were largely their personal creations, though it is true that at Goshen Superintendent Hedgepeth placed some very heavy reliance upon outside support from the University of Chicago. Even so, however, the facts show that he was quite willing to proceed with his plans with or without the help of the university.

The influence which was common at Joliet, Goshen, and Crane and which was of such potent importance in getting the respective schools actually established can be generalized broadly as bold leadership. This influence, more than anything else, helps to explain why these schools actually came into existence in response to antecedent influences. While it is true that a cooperative board of education at all locations was another necessary ingredient, this influence was very probably the outcome of bold leadership by the superintendents.

Under modern conditions, it is unlikely that junior colleges ever so clearly reflect the leadership of a single person. The actual activation of modern junior colleges is much more likely to be the outcome of a large amount of teamwork involving many different individuals. Moreover,



the actions of these groups will reflect rational decision-making processes rather than the type of "gamble" displayed by the superintendents concerned with the three junior colleges studied. Yet, leadership, bold or otherwise, is still needed. The unmet needs and other antecedent conditions favoring a junior college must be recognized by some person with enough leadership power to activate the committee actions and other procedures necessary to put a plan into operation. Moreover, sometimes real leadership is needed to overcome resistance to proposals for forming a new institution. Bold leadership is still probably a universal component of junior college formation during the activation phase of the experimental period.

Major Influences during the Trial Phase

The trial phase of the experimental period may be described as that period between the time of the opening of the three junior colleges and their termination or advancement into the second rapid-growth phase. At all three institutions, the trial phase represented a critical period during which there was some doubt as to whether the institutions would survive. Indeed, one of the programs studied did fail to survive this period. For the other two, the trial phase was characterized mainly by relatively slow growth.

A key question associated with the trial phase is this: what influences, or what kinds of influences, were

The first part of the paper discusses the importance of the study of the history of the United States. It is argued that a knowledge of the past is essential for a full understanding of the present. The author then goes on to discuss the various factors that have shaped the development of the United States, including the role of the government, the influence of the economy, and the impact of the culture. The author concludes by stating that the study of the history of the United States is a task of great importance, and that it is one that should be undertaken by all who are interested in the future of the country.

The second part of the paper discusses the role of the government in the development of the United States. It is argued that the government has played a central role in the shaping of the country, and that its actions have had a profound impact on the lives of its citizens. The author then goes on to discuss the various ways in which the government has influenced the development of the United States, including through its control of the economy, its regulation of the environment, and its provision of social services. The author concludes by stating that the government is a powerful force in the United States, and that it is one that should be held accountable for its actions.

related to survival or non-survival? The question may be answered partially by noting that there was a common element to the extent that the principal influences appear to have been external in nature. Of the external influences, none appears to have been more important than the size of the high school population serving as a base from which to draw students. At Joliet, largely because the district had been formed on a township basis, there were relatively large high school graduating classes. Large graduating classes were true of Chicago, also, the second largest city in the United States. Though neither Joliet Junior College nor Crane Junior College was successful in attracting a large percentage of the potential students, the high school graduation base at both places was sufficiently large to provide adequate junior college enrollments to help assure survival. At Goshen, in contrast, the graduation base was not only small but, worse yet, had to be shared with a competitive institution, Goshen College. Small high school enrollments and competition appear to have been the main influences associated with Goshen's failure to survive. It may be said, therefore, that a general and common influence related to the survival or nonsurvival of the three pioneering institutions was size of the high school enrollment upon which the junior college enrollment was dependent.

The question of survival, however, is not the only one relevant to the trial phase insofar as it relates to Joliet and Crane. For these two institutions, it must also be asked why they grew so slowly as they did during the trial phase.

One common influence, apparently of considerable potency, was an internal one in the way of overemphasis of the transfer function. At Joliet, Superintendent Brown from the very start concentrated on getting courses accredited on an individual basis at the University of Illinois and at the University of Chicago as well as at other institutions. Here the curriculum was planned almost entirely to meet college admission requirements. Similarly, at Crane Principal Bartholf, somewhat inconsistently with Superintendent Young's original ideas, aimed at college accreditation, too. Actual accreditation, however, was not achieved by either school until 1917, or near the very end of the experimental period. Lack of general accreditation during the earlier years doubtlessly was a deterrent to some students who were anxious to secure advanced standing at colleges and universities. A more potent effect of the overemphasis, however, was that of making the schools relatively unappealing to the large number of youth who might have benefited from terminal programs which would have directly enhanced their employability.

It may be noted that while the transfer emphasis was an influence at Joliet and at Crane in the way of minimizing early progress, the same influence at Goshen was probably responsible to some degree in bringing about early termination. At all three schools there was a common emphasis upon securing the recognition of institutions of higher learning so that graduating students could enter higher institutions with advanced standing.



Another common inhibitory influence helping to explain slow growth at Joliet and at Crane--and also helping to explain the early demise of Goshen--was the lack of permissive legislation. All three schools were established as extralegal institutions. At Joliet, this fact was clearly related to slow early growth, for, acutely conscious that his junior college might at any time be challenged on legal grounds, Superintendent Brown carefully refrained from engaging in any promotional methods which might have sparked controversy but which, at the same time, might have stimulated enrollment. With Joliet having continued in operation for almost a decade without being legally challenged, the Chicago superintendent and board probably felt themselves to be relatively safe on legal grounds in operating the tuition-free Crane Junior College. Because of the Joliet precedent, the lack of permissive legislation was probably less potent to Crane than it would have been had Crane been the first junior college in Illinois.

The common trial-phase influences of high school enrollment size, overemphasis of the transfer function, and lack of permissive legislation have little relevance to the modern setting. First, it is doubtful whether any junior college started today would have to go through a trial-phase similar to those which Joliet, Crane, and Goshen endured. The question of survival is no longer of special concern. It is virtually inconceivable that any junior college established today would need to concern itself with maintaining its existence except under extraordinary circumstances too remote to be of general concern.



It is difficult to imagine, too, an institution being hampered by inordinately small enrollments. Indeed, the problem today is likely to be the reverse. Furthermore, with states today having permissive legislation, junior colleges are relatively immune from being challenged on legal grounds and are free to promote their services openly. In some schools and in some localities, there may still be an unhealthy overemphasis upon the transfer function, but probably most junior colleges established today recognize the transfer function as only one of their many roles.

In brief, therefore, during the micro experimental periods, three types of influences seem to have affected all three junior colleges commonly. These included (1) antecedent phase influences (unmet needs associated with isolation, awareness of trends in the wider educational environment, and unused space), (2) activation phase influences (bold leadership), and (3) trail phase influences (high school enrollment size, overemphasis of the transfer function, and lack of permissive legislation).

It may be said, generally, that the three pioneer institutions studied came into being because there were antecedent conditions to create the possibilities for extended high school programs and, also, because the superintendents in each case were bold leaders who had faith in their ideas and were willing to experiment in order to advance educational opportunities. After the programs were activated, they survived or failed to survive largely because of external influences among which the most important

was the size of the high school enrollment from which students could be drawn. The two schools which survived grew slowly during the remainder of the experimental period because they appealed directly to a relatively small segment of college-oriented high school graduates and because, being extralegal institutions, they were restrained from promoting themselves in a way which might have stimulated more rapid enrollment progress.

Common Influences on the Development of Joliet and Crane during Their Rapid-growth Periods

During the succeeding rapid-growth periods, there was one common influence of an external nature which helps to explain why Joliet and Crane developed especially rapidly after the end of World War I. This common influence was accreditation by the North Central Association at the same time in 1917, or just before the two institutions' rapid-growth periods started.

Apart from this influence, the common forces which affected the development of both schools appear to have been those macro influences which were tending to stimulate junior college development in general during the 1920's. These macro factors have been identified in a preceding section of this chapter. Virtually all of them were relevant to the development of both Joliet and Crane during their experimental periods.

It should be noted that the developmental patterns of the two schools had the common feature of showing rapid

growth as measured by students being served, but otherwise were different. At Joliet, rapid growth in enrollment during the second period appears to have been accompanied by steady improvement in the quality of the services rendered. At Crane, on the other hand, a corollary of rapid enrollment growth was a marked decline in the quality of the program--a decline which resulted at the very end of the rapid-growth period in Crane's loss of accreditation.

A generalization which might be drawn from the two case histories which would have some relevance today would be the questionable possible practice of expansion of inadequately financed institutions. Such expansion may be detrimental to quality and later acceptance of credits by other institutions of higher education.

Comparison of Findings with Those of Fretwell's

Earlier Study

As was pointed out in the introductory Chapter, there has been at least one previous study of formative influences on early junior colleges. The study referred to is the one by Fretwell (1:2) who arrived at the following four major generalizations regarding influences commonly associated with the development of the eight junior colleges concerned in his study:

There was a demand for junior college instruction and a community readiness for it.



"Prime Movers" were on the scene, either as individuals or in groups.

There was general citizen support for the new college.

Technical-administrative problems were adequately solved.

To some extent the present study corroborates these generalizations. The generalization that "there was a demand for junior college instruction and a community readiness for it" conforms somewhat with the antecedent-phase influence described in this study as "existence of unmet needs." In the case of the three junior colleges studied, however, it is somewhat difficult to say that there was "a community readiness for them." Unmet needs are not always recognized as such by the community at large and there does not appear to have been, at either Joliet, Goshen, or Crane, a general community readiness for the institutions. Indeed, at Goshen, this readiness scarcely existed at all, though it might well have been developed had the unmet needs not have been largely satisfied by a competitive institution. The present study would suggest that, in the institutions studied, there was, during the experimental phases, a potential readiness which had to be cultivated and developed before these institutions could progress into the rapid-growth stage.

Fretwell's second generalization, "prime movers were on the scene . . .," is closely analogous to the

finding of the present study that "bold leadership" was a necessary, though not a sufficient, influence for bringing about actual activation of the three junior colleges studied. In general, the two studies are mutually corroborative on this point.

In regard to the third generalization made by Fretwell, an important question is: during what phase was "there general citizen support for the new college"? This study would agree with Fretwell's to the extent that at Joliet and at Crane there was, during the rapid-growth period, general public support of these schools--a support which at Crane was manifested by a vigorous popular movement aimed at preventing a reactionary board from destroying the institution after the onset of the depression. On the other hand, it would seem to be questionable to say that at Joliet, Goshen, and Crane there was general citizen support of the schools during the experimental period. During this early stage, the popular attitude--indeed, if there was an attitude at all--in all three communities was probably one of indifference. While the citizens of none of the communities actually challenged the schools on legal or other grounds, neither did they manifest any great enthusiastic support for the new junior colleges. Certainly there was a notable lack of enthusiasm at Goshen and the relatively small enrollments at Joliet and Crane during the experimental period would suggest a popular attitude somewhat different from that which could be described as "general citizen support." At Joliet, to the end of the experimental period, relatively few citizens even knew of the junior college program.

In considering Fretwell's fourth generalization, it is necessary, again, to call attention to different stages of development. This study would corroborate Fretwell's generalization to the extent that during the experimental period at all three schools studied "technical-administrative problems were adequately solved" as might well be inferred from the fact that all institutions were highly regarded by institutions of higher education such as the University of Illinois and the University of Chicago. On the other hand, it is clear that during the second phase of development, technical-administrative problems were not adequately solved at Crane. Indeed, administrative defects were among the reasons given by the North Central Association for terminating Crane's accreditation status at the end of the rapid growth period. Thus, this study is only in partial agreement with the fourth generalization of the Fretwell study.

It is felt, in conclusion, that the contributions made by Fretwell and those offered by the present study are of a different nature. Whereas Fretwell chiefly aimed at a descriptive study of the schools studied, this investigation has been more concerned with analysis than with description. Both studies taken together complement each other and should clarify the origin of the junior college movement in the United States considerably.



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A P P E N D I X E S



APPENDIX A

ABSOLUTE DATA FOR MEASURING GROWTH OF CRANE, LANE, AND SENN
 POST HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS, CHICAGO, ILLINOIS,
 USED IN CONSTRUCTING CHARTS 5 AND 8

School Year	Crane	Lane	Senn
1932-1933*	3,254		
1931-1932*	3,165		
1930-1931*	2,921		
1929-1930	3,616		
1928-1929	3,399		
1927-1928	2,833		
1926-1927	2,197		
1925-1926	1,784		
1924-1925	1,172		
1923-1924	853		
1922-1923	700		
1921-1922	551		
1920-1921	376		
1919-1920	328		
1918-1919	354		
1917-1918	316		
1916-1917	211	128	50
1915-1916	184	107	47
1914-1915	136	61	15
1913-1914	69	41	
1912-1913	35	33	
1911-1912	20	11	

*Enrollment. All other figures are Average Daily Membership.

SOURCE: Benjamin C. Willis, "Report on the Chicago City Junior Colleges to the Board of Education, May 23, 1956,"
 Table I, p. 43.



A P P E N D I X B

TOTAL ENROLLMENT, MALE ENROLLMENT, FEMALE ENROLLMENT,
CRANE JUNIOR COLLEGE, BY SCHOOL YEARS,
USED IN CONSTRUCTING CHART 6

School Year	Total Enrollment	Male Enrollment	Female Enrollment
1931-1932	4,287	3,236	1,051
1930-1931	4,061?[sic]	2,903	1,158
1929-1930	5,497?[sic]	4,040	1,457
1928-1929	4,089?[sic]	3,041	1,048
1927-1928	3,345	2,542	803
1926-1927	3,210	2,483	727
1925-1926	2,497	1,961	536
1924-1925	1,699	1,373	326
1923-1924	1,203	957	246
1922-1923	1,071	887	184
1921-1922	846	727	119
1920-1921	580	514	66
1919-1920	463	412	51
1918-1919	552*	495	57
1917-1918	418**	344	74
1916-1917	280	224	56
1915-1916	230	216	14
1914-1915	181	181	
1913-1914	78	78	
1912-1913	45	45	
1911-1912	30	30	

*Student Army Training Corps disbanded.

**Student Army Training Corps formed.

SOURCE: E. S. Evenden and F. B. O'Rear, "Higher Education in the Public School System," in George B. Strayer, Director, Report of the Survey of the Schools of Chicago, Illinois, Vol. II, pp. 295-296.

A P P E N D I X C

NUMBER OF STUDENTS GRADUATING, CRANE JUNIOR COLLEGE,
1912-1913, TO FEBRUARY, 1932, BY SCHOOL YEAR,
USED IN CONSTRUCTING CHARTS 7 AND 10

School Year	No. of Students Graduating
1931-1932 (Feb.)	165
1930-1931	481
1929-1930	778
1928-1929	812
1927-1928	604
1926-1927	446
1925-1926	265
1924-1925	191
1923-1924	177
1922-1923	144
1921-1922	136
1920-1921	110
1919-1920	114
1918-1919	59
1917-1918	88
1916-1917	38
1915-1916	61
1914-1915	36
1913-1914	14
1912-1913	9

SOURCE: E. S. Evenden and F. B. O'Rear, "Higher Education in the Public School System," in George B. Strayer, Director, Report of the Survey of the Schools of Chicago, Illinois, Vol. II, p. 298.

VITA

Robert Stephen Smolich was born in Joliet, Illinois, on December 24, 1926, the son of Clara M. Smolich and Stephen F. Smolich. After completing his high school studies at the Joliet Township High School, Joliet, Illinois, in August 1944, he entered the U.S. Navy and served from November 1944 through August 1946, in the area of the western Pacific. Upon returning to civilian life, he entered Joliet Junior College in September 1946, and completed the two-year program in June 1948. In September of that year he entered the University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, and received the degree of Bachelor of Science in Education in June of 1950. In August 1950, he was employed by the Albuquerque Public Schools as a teacher of junior high school social studies. In June 1956, the degree of Master of Arts was awarded to him by the University of New Mexico. During the 1961-1962 year, he was granted a leave of absence from the Albuquerque schools to undertake doctoral studies at The University of Texas under a grant from the Kellogg Foundation. From January through May 1967, he again attended The University of Texas to complete his doctoral studies.

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